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WGRC 73-3297

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EOS IMAGE DATA PROCESSING SYSTEM DEFINITION STUDY

(NASA-CR-132892) EOS IMAGE DATA
PROCESSING SYSTEM DEFINITION STUDY Final
Technical Report, May - Aug. 1973
(General Research Corp.) 118 p HC \$8.00

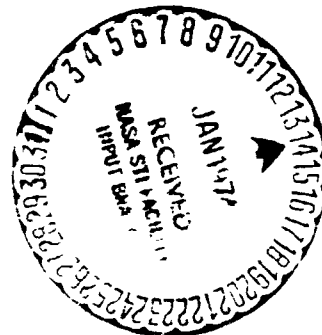
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J. Gilbert
T. Honikman
E. McMahon
E. Miller
L. Pietrzak
W. Yorsz
General Research Corporation
Washington Operations
1501 Wilson Boulevard
Arlington, Virginia 22209

October 1973

Prepared for
GODDARD SPACE FLIGHT CENTER
Greenbelt, Maryland 20771



TECHNICAL REPORT STANDARD TITLE PAGE

1. Report No. CR-1-457	2. Government Accession No.	3. Recipient's Catalog No.
4. Title and Subtitle EOS Image Data Processing System Definition Study	5. Report Date October 1973	6. Performing Organization Code
7. Author(s) J. Gilbert, T. Honikman, E. McMahon, E. Miller, L. Pietrzak, W. Yorsz	8. Performing Organization Report No. CR-1-457	10. Work Unit No.
9. Performing Organization Name and Address General Research Corporation Washington Operations 1501 Wilson Boulevard Arlington, Virginia 22209	11. Contract or Grant No. NAS-5-21950	13. Type of Report and Period Covered Final Technical Report May 1973-August 1973
12. Sponsoring Agency Name and Address Goddard Space Flight Center Greenbelt, Maryland 20771 John Y. Sos, NASA Monitor	14. Sponsoring Agency Code	
15. Supplementary Notes		
16. Abstract <p>The primary objective of this study is to define Image Processing System (IPS) requirements and configurations for the NASA-sponsored advanced technology Earth Observatory System (EOS). The scope included investigation and definition of IPS operational, functional, and product requirements considering overall system constraints and interfaces (sensor, etc.). The scope also included investigation of the technical feasibility and definition of a point design reflecting system requirements. The design phase required a survey of present and projected technology related to general and special-purpose processors, high-density digital tape recorders, and image recorders.</p>		
17. Key Words (Selected by Author(s)) Earth Resources Survey System Digital Image Processing High Density Digital Data Recorders Mission Simulation	18. Distribution Statement	
19. Security Classif. (of this report) Unclassified	20. Security Classif. (of this page) Unclassified	21. No. of Pages vii + 111
		22. Price*

PREFACE

Objective

The primary objective of this study is to define Image Processing System (IPS) requirements and configurations for the NASA sponsored advanced technology Earth Observatory System (EOS).

Scope

The scope included investigation and definition of IPS operational, functional, and product requirements considering overall system constraints and interfaces (sensor, etc.). The scope also included investigation of the technical feasibility and definition of a point design reflecting system requirements. The design phase required a survey of present and projected technology related to general and special-purpose processors, high-density digital tape recorders, and image recorders.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Major conclusions and recommendations include:

- (1) Digital image processing systems are feasible. The recommended configuration consists of a general-purpose digital computer augmented with special-purpose digital hardware, an input digital tape recorder and interfacing device, high-density digital tape recorders as the primary output devices, and a laser beam film recorder interfaced to high-density digital tape recorders for film imagery generation.
- (2) Digital tape recorders with input rates high enough to accommodate the EOS satellite transfer rate are not yet commercially available. However given present technology, they are feasible with minimum development cost.
- (3) The recommended primary archive is corrected data on high-density digital tape. This data may be copied for distribution as a product and used as input to reproduction units. These modular reproduction units give needed growth and flexibility.

- (4) Data transfer (interfacing), working data storage, and data flow and control (operational timeline) are critical areas which will determine the success of a specific design.
- (5) Efficient means for identifying ground control points in the data must be determined to minimize data reprocessing compatible with required accuracies and data availability.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

NASA's Earth Observatory System (EOS) program is intended to develop and demonstrate advanced remote sensing techniques for management of the earth's resources. The system will acquire high-resolution multispectral data of the earth's surface which is transmitted to data processing centers for correction and reduction into images or digital tapes of unprecedented quality and variety to fulfill the varied requirements of investigators and user agencies.

The overall EOS system includes:

1. An Operations Control Center (OCC) which is the focal point of mission orbital operations
2. The satellite itself which carries a payload that includes advanced multispectral sensors, telemetry, tracking and command subsystems, etc.
3. A communications network linked to ground receiving sites that collect the multispectral data
4. Ground image processing systems (IPS) for data correction and reduction

This study focuses on the IPS. Specifically, it investigates and defines IPS requirements and system configurations for facilities that employ all-digital image processing techniques for the correction of radiometric errors and geometric distortions in the sensor images.

The study was conducted over a period of three months during which numerous meetings and personal contacts were made with related technology groups within the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center EOS Project Office as well as industry. These groups included: design and operating personnel associated with the present operational ERTS-1 system at Goddard;

technology groups involved in the overall EOS study effort in and outside of Goddard; and companies producing general- and special-purpose processors, digital tape recorders and image recorders.

1.2 SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Section 2 discusses the major system requirements and assumptions that form the basis of the IPS design approaches. This includes general operational requirements such as work week and number of shifts; functional requirements including processing algorithms and scene loading; product requirements both image and digital; and overall system constraints and interfaces related to sensors and spacecraft.

Section 3 develops point designs for both a central and regional image processing facility. Included are estimates of computer resources required and architectural alternatives available, for both general-purpose and special-purpose processor implementations. Also included are input/output configurations related to available digital and image recording equipment.

Major conclusions and recommendations include:

- Digital image processing systems are feasible. The recommended configuration consists of a general-purpose digital computer augmented with special-purpose digital hardware, an input digital tape recorder and interfacing device, high-density digital tape recorders as the primary output device, and a laser beam film recorder interfaced to high-density digital tape recorders for film imagery generation.
- Digital tape recorders with input rates high enough to accommodate the EOS satellite transfer rate are not yet commercially available. However, given present technology they are feasible with minimum development cost.

- The recommended primary archive is corrected data on high-density digital tape. This data may be copied for distribution as a product and used as input to reproduction units. These modular reproduction units give needed growth and flexibility.
- Data transfer (interfacing), working data storage, and data flow and control (operational timeline) are critical areas which will determine the success of a specific design.
- Efficient means for identifying ground control points in the data must be determined to minimize data reprocessing compatible with required accuracies and data availability.

Noted that the processing estimates and system configurations developed in this study reflect a low-to-medium scale of detail; it would be expected that additional efforts, at a much higher level of detail, be completed prior to final selection of specific system configurations.

2 SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS AND ASSUMPTIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This section discusses the major system requirements and assumptions that form the basis of the image processing system (IPS) design approaches discussed in sec. 3. Included are direct IPS requirements (user and archival products, work week, number of shifts, etc.) as well as overall system constraints and interfaces (sensor, spacecraft, etc.) that impact the IPS design.

The data presented, although still preliminary, represents the best information available at the time of this study and reflects the judgment of the various technology groups in the EOS Project Office at Goddard. In some cases where more than one candidate technology for a given application is being considered (e.g., more than one multispectral scanner is currently under consideration), a technology was chosen.

2.2 GENERAL OPERATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The overall EOS mission calls for two basic IPS facilities. The first is a main or central facility likely to be located at the present ERTS-1 Data Processing Facility site at the Goddard Space Flight Center. This facility is to process all the basic scene load obtained from the satellite, as well as produce all the image and digital products required by NASA users. (Specific scene loading and product requirements are outlined in secs. 2.3 and 2.4, respectively.)

The second facility is a scaled-down version of the central facility intended for image processing and product generation for the needs of a given region only. These regional facilities, for example, might be located in, and operated by, various state authorities throughout the U.S. to serve users interested in monitoring state or local resources and phenomena only. For purposes of this study, this facility is assumed capable of handling up to 30% of the basic scene load and product generation.

Each facility is assumed to operate on a seven-day work week. Nominally, two 8-hour shifts are allocated to actual production and the remaining 8 hours to daily hardware coldstarts, software development, and preventive or other unscheduled maintenance. Staffing is therefore assumed to require a full four shifts per week for the computer and three shifts plus maintenance for I/O units and other equipment.

2.3 DATA PROCESSING REQUIREMENTS AND ASSUMPTIONS

All-digital image processing is assumed the only technique. This system corrects for radiometric errors and geometric distortions by operating directly on the imagery data in digital form, as contrasted to a hybrid electro-optical method. Simply stated, digital data defining the intensity level of each picture element of a given scene is corrected and adjusted using the various computational and operational procedures described in sec. 2.3.2.

The principal factors that impact the processing load for an all-digital system are:

- The scene-based workload, i.e., the number of scenes per day, and the data characteristics of a given scene.
- The specific algorithms chosen as providing a balance between accuracy requirements and data processing requirements.

These factors require judgment and resourcefulness if the data processing loads are to be reasonable. The former factor--the number of scenes per day--is largely a system design feature that is somewhat constrained by system interface constraints (see sec. 2.5), but the latter factors, involving the selection of the algorithms to be used, exhibit greater leverage with respect to the amount of "computing power" required.

2.3.1 Scene-Based Workload

As used here, a "scene" is a collection of band-limited frames of information originating from two on-board sensors chosen as base-line for this study: the thematic mapper (TM) and the high-resolution pointable imager (HRPI).

A Thematic Mapper Scene Characteristics

The TM is a bidirectional linear scanner having the general characteristics summarized in table 1. This sensor gathers data by scanning the surface of the earth in swaths measuring 420 m along track and 185 km cross track. Seven spectral bands are recorded simultaneously. The first six have 14 scan lines per swath, corresponding to 30-m resolution each. The seventh has 3 scan lines per swath, corresponding to 140-m resolution.

In general terms, the sensor obtains cross-track data by means of an oscillating mirror that reflects light through a single focusing optical system. The light is then passed through optical filters unique to each spectral band and conducted to individual detectors. Video data is recorded during both mirror-scan directions. Signals at the detector electronics output (87 channels total) are then sampled, digitized, and formatted into a serial digital data stream by a multiplexer similar to ERTS-1 MSS.

Along-track imagery is produced by the orbital motion of the spacecraft with the subsatellite point moving 420 m during one-half the main mirror-scan cycle. A second mirror corrects for satellite velocity during each half scan.

The basic scene data for the TM is given under item 5 in table 1. A TM scene covers 185 km \times 185 km on the ground and contains seven frames, each consisting of an array of picture elements (pixels). A pixel is the encoded radiometric intensity from a detector for the range of

TABLE 1
THEMATIC MAPPER CHARACTERISTICS

1. Bidirectional linear scanner having an 8.4-Hz scanner mirror frequency with compensated mirror motion.
2. Seven bands total:
 - a. 6 bands @ 14 detectors/band/cross-track swath
 - b. 1 band with 3 detectors per cross-track swath
3. Intraband registration errors similar to the ERTS-1 MSS.
4. Band pixel intensity data interleaved in data stream similar to ERTS-1 MSS.
5. Basic Scene Data:
 - a. 185 km \times 185 km scene
 - b. Instantaneous field of view (IFOV)
 - 6 bands @ 30 m
 - 1 band @ 140 m
 - c. 7 bits/pixel encoded intensity data
 - d. Oversampling to be considered parametrically resulting in the following pixels per scene:

NUMBER OF PIXELS IN A SCENE

BANDS	OVERSAMPLING FACTOR			
	1.0 \times 1.0		1.4 \times 1.0	
	CROSS TRACK	ALONG TRACK	CROSS TRACK	ALONG TRACK
1 through 6	6300	6300	8820	6300
7th	1350	1350	1900	1350

6. Sensor internal errors are to be modeled and compensated in the IPS by algorithm.
7. The sensor is to have no offset pointing capability.

frequencies corresponding to a given frame. Each pixel is encoded to 128 levels of grayness and is represented as a 7-bit quantity.

The present specifications of the TM call for 1.4 samples per IFOV width to be received by the multiplexer and sampler, whereas only 1 sample per IFOV is to be received in the direction of the spacecraft velocity. The input to the IPS, therefore, consists of a matrix of data points where the cross-track spacing between points is 1.4 of the along-track spacing. Identically, for every n "lines" of data, we have $1.4n^2$ pixel values.

The rationale for oversampling in one direction is debatable since the utility of the 40% increase in data volume in this direction has not yet been adequately demonstrated. Indeed, oversampling problems include:

1. Passing of higher frequencies in the cross-track direction. (It is recognized, though, that there is a low-pass noise-limiting filter in the sensor that attenuates spatial frequencies in the cross-track which is somewhat compensated for by oversampling.)
2. Relating the scene loading in terms of bits per day to both input to and output from the IPS.

The latter factor relates to the output data grid functional requirements. This grid can be identical in units (but corrected for error and projection) to the input grid. However, the non-unity aspect ratio (i.e., ratio of distance between cross-track and along-track samples in the output data) can make output data analysis difficult: spatial frequency analysis, data classification, and pattern analyses will be biased by direction; data handling equipment must be programmed or adjusted to account for this aspect ratio.

Further implications of this problem are discussed again in sec. 2.3.2 under functional requirements. At this time, note that, because of the uncertainty about the utility of oversampling the scene loading (sec. 2.3.1.C) was established at the IPS output and, where time would permit, oversampling factors (item 5d, table 1) of both 1.4×1.0 and 1.0×1.0 were considered in the study.

B High-Resolution Pointable Imager Scene Characteristic

The second on-board sensor used as a base line in this study is the HRPI. As its name implies, this sensor is pointable and has a resolution of the order of 10 m. Its major characteristics are summarized in table 2 and fig. 1.

The HRPI is a four-band sensor whose image is reconstructed from a staggered linear array of 4800 individual IFOVs spanning the cross-track direction (fig. 1a).

In general terms, the sensor operates as follows: Light from each IFOV is focused through a common optical system onto a series of dichroic mirrors which separate the four bands and impinge them onto four separate arrays of detectors. The detector response is then sampled by one of 4800 diodes arranged on 5 silicon chips containing 10 elements of 96 diodes each (fig. 1b).

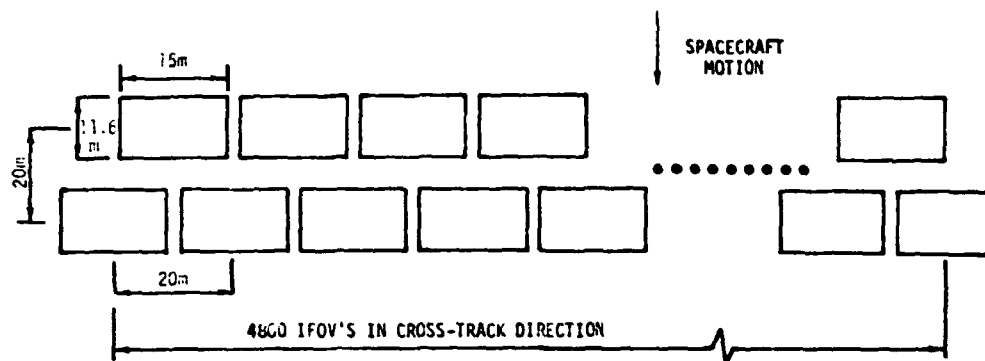
Each IFOV in the combined scene is sampled in sequence using diodes on alternate chips. For a given IFOV a single element (fig. 1b) samples the four bands in sequence. This data is then digitized and pixel interleaved* in the data stream as shown in fig. 1c.

In summary, then, cross-track imaging for the HRPI is accomplished by simply sampling individual detector response in proper sequence. There are no scanning components. The along-track imaging is produced by the

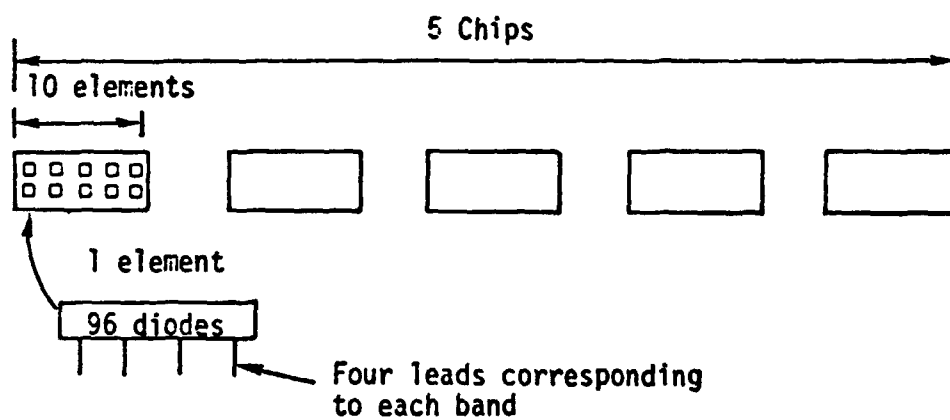
* Pixel-interleaved data has geographically identical data for all bands in sequential order; band-sequential data is entire frames of data (many pixels) in band-by-band order.

TABLE 2
HIGH-RESOLUTION POINTABLE IMAGER CHARACTERISTICS

1. Four-band sensor with fixed linear arrays of detectors
 - a. 4800 detectors/band with a combined IFOV as shown in fig. 1a.
 - b. Single optical system using dichroic mirrors separates the bands onto the separate arrays of detectors.
2. Detector electronics and readout
 - a. Each IFOV is sampled by one of 4800 diodes arranged on 5 chips containing 10 elements of 96 diodes each (fig. 1b).
 - b. For each IFOV a single element samples four bands. Data is interleaved in the data stream as shown in fig. 1c.
3. Sensor has offset pointing capability:
 - a. $\pm 45^\circ$ total
 - b. 1° increments
 - c. ± 1 arc sec repeatability
4. Basic Scene Data
 - a. 48 km \times 185 km scene at zero offset
 - b. IFOV: 10 m all bands
 - c. Scene requires 4800 pixels (cross track) to 18,500 pixels (along track)
 - d. 7 bits/pixel encoded intensity data
5. Combined sensor internal error to be modeled and compensated in the IPS by algorithm: ± 1.2 pixels maximum
6. Sensor requires nonlinear radiometric calibration.

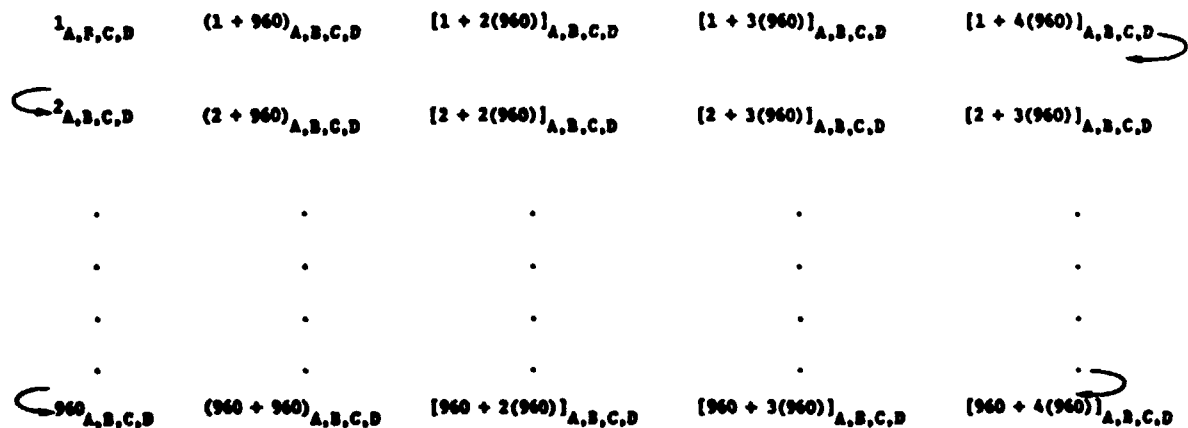


a. Staggered Linear Array IFOV Geometry

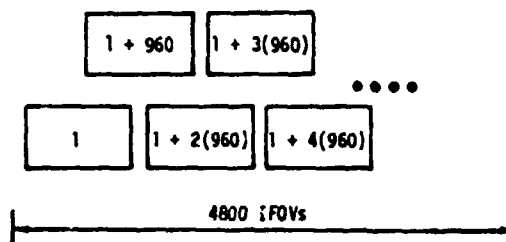


b. Detector Electronics

Figure 1. High-Resolution Pointable Imager Characteristics



Corresponding IFOV



Note: -Numbers are diode position in the sequence
 -Subscripts correspond to bands

c. HRPI Readout Sequence

Figure 1 (Cont.). High-Resolution Pointable Imager Characteristics

orbital motion of the spacecraft. It should be noted that as the fixed array of staggered IFOVs moves forward, $2 \times 4 \text{ bands} \times 4800 \text{ IFOV} = 38,400$ IFOVs must be transmitted to obtain adjacent IFOV in the same line in the combined image. This results from the IFOV geometry and nature of the diode readout sequence (fig. 1c).

The HRPI basic scene data is given as item 4, table 2. At zero pointing offset an HRPI scene covers 48 km (cross track) \times 185 km (along track) on the ground and contains four frames each consisting of $4800 \times 18,500$ pixels. Each pixel is encoded to 128 levels of grayness and is represented as a 7-bit quantity similar to the TM.

C Scene Loading

As a design point for this study, the basic scene load (i.e., actual distinct observations) to be processed through the central facility IPS is taken as 10^{11} output data bits per day from each sensor. Assuming a 30% factor (discussed in Sec. 2.2), this is reduced to 3×10^{10} output data bits per day per sensor for the regional facility.

An additional 35% is applied to the basic scene load to allow for processing results from:

1. Alternative processing algorithms (e.g., cubic convolution¹ versus nearest neighbor interpolation)--taken as 30% of the basic scene load.
2. User retrospective or duplicate processing--taken as 5% of the basic scene load.

Equivalent scenes per day corresponding to output data bits, for each sensor and for each facility type, are summarized in table 3 (see sec. 2.5 for the conversion details).

TABLE 3
EQUIVALENT SCENE LOADING

SENSOR	SCENES/DAY					
	Basic Scene Load Input		Additional Processing		Total Output	
	Central	Regional	Central	Regional	Central	Regional
HRPI	40	12	14	4	54	16
THEMATIC MAPPER (1 x 1.4 oversampling)	42	13	15	4	57	17
THEMATIC MAPPER (1 x 1 oversampling)	60	18	20	6	80	24

2.3.2 Algorithms and Functional Requirements

Each frame of each scene must be radiometrically and geometrically correct. That is, each must be adjusted for known deficiencies and variations in the sensor response to impinging intensity sources, and each must be geometrically transformed so that the resultant image represents a true one. The calibration for the sensor is gathered over a period of time and is assumed to be known explicitly. The primary information which can be used to generate the necessary transformation of each frame to eliminate geometric distortions can come from three sources:

1. Detailed data about satellite position, attitude, and attitude rates, based on telemetry data and supplementary calculations performed on satellite tracking data.
2. Correlation between one frame of the input scene and similar (but independently collected) data corresponding to a ground control point (GCP). (The selection of which of the several frames to employ in this role is assumed to be outside the domain of this study.)
3. A combination of GCP and satellite position and attitude data.

For the purposes of this study we assume that GCP techniques are used as the primary means of identification of the appropriate transformation. At this time no attitude information from AMS measurements is assumed.

In this study, the major functions performed in processing TM or HRPI digital imaging include

1. Image input: sorting and inventory of pixel intensity values to reconstruct frames in the proper sequence.
2. Radiometric correction: accounts for drift in sensor response with time and within each frame.
3. Ground control point correlation: detection of ground control points to support identification of the image transformation due to external positional errors.

4. Offset pointing correction: for the HRPI identification of the image transformation due to offset pointing of the sensor.
5. Inverse transformation generation: use of GCP, offset pointing, and sensor internal error information to generate specific transformations applied to the input image to produce the corrected scene.
6. Output image generation: use of the information and video interpolation to identify the selected pixel values for the output scene. This function also includes image formatting.

Other secondary functions include:

1. Input and output control
2. Annotation computation including framing, map projections, etc.
3. Establishing ground control point truth data
4. Internal data management

The computational flow and interrelationships between these major functions are identified in fig. 2.

More specific requirements related to each major function are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

A Image Input

The TM reads out intensity data directly into a pixel-interleaved format with IFOV along a line of a given swath in proper sequence. On the other hand, because this scanner records video data during both mirror scan directions, adjacent swaths are read out in reversed sequence. This requires input sorting and inventory for proper image reconstruction during processing.

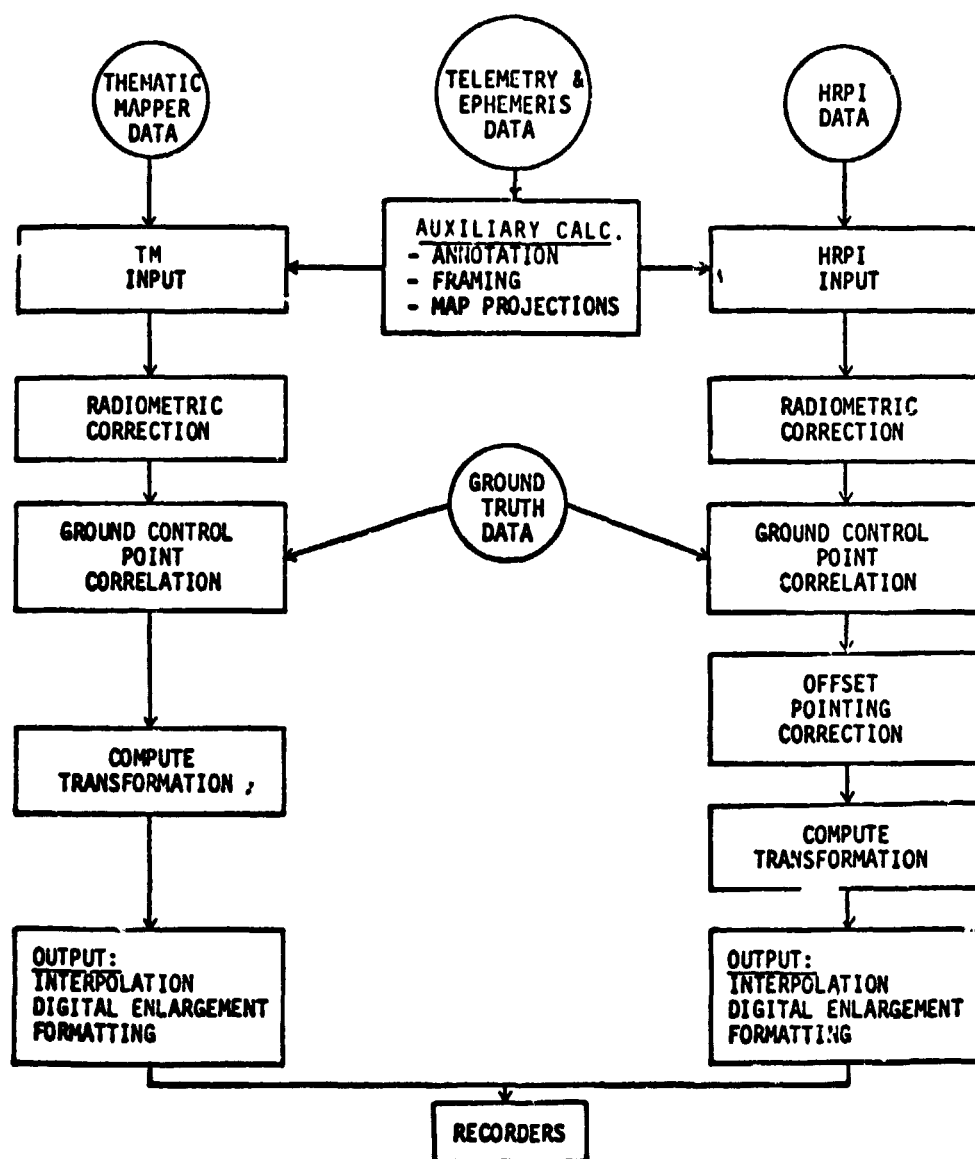


Figure 2. Image Processing Functional Flow

On the other hand, the HRPI requires considerable input sorting and inventory that must be accounted for. This results from the 38,400 pixel values separating line adjacent IFOV in the transmitted image, as discussed in sec. 2.3.1.B and fig. 1c.

B Radiometric Correction

Concerning radiometric accuracy, this study assumes that calibration errors and other processing distortions (interpolation, etc.) when combined will not be greater than ± 1 quantum level.

C Ground Control Point Correlation

The attitude control system on board the EOS satellite is assumed to provide orbit stability considerably improved over the present ERTS-1 system. A relative comparison of EOS projected attitude control versus ERTS-1 experience is given in table 4.

Because of improved stability, it is assumed that only one scene per orbit will require GCP correlations to establish attitude information. Seven separate GCP correlations within that scene are assumed adequate.

In conjunction with GCP correlations, the overall geometrical accuracy goal assumed in the study is to have any point in a scene located to within $\pm 1/2$ pixel of its true position. The ability to locate a pixel accurately in an output scene depends not only on properly compensating for all geometrical errors in the system (sensor, etc.) but also on adequately knowing the spacecraft position and orientation through ephemeris and attitude data.

Figure 3 indicates the restraints placed upon the orbital ephemeris and spacecraft attitude for allowable total rms error for the two spacecraft sensors. The graph axes are chosen to reflect the error in meters on the ground resulting from either the ephemeris or the attitude. The second axis for attitude errors, labeled in seconds, represents

TABLE 4
ATTITUDE CONTROL PARAMETERS

	<u>EOS PROJECTIONS</u>	<u>ERTS-1 EXPERIENCE</u>
Pointing Accuracy	< ± 0.01 deg	< ± 0.5 deg
Pointing Stability		
● Average Rate deviation	< $\pm 10^{-6}$ deg/s	< ± 0.015 deg/s
● Attitude Deviation		
Up to 30-s period	< ± 0.0003 deg	< ± 0.3 deg
Up to 20-min period	< ± 0.0006 deg	< ± 1.0 deg

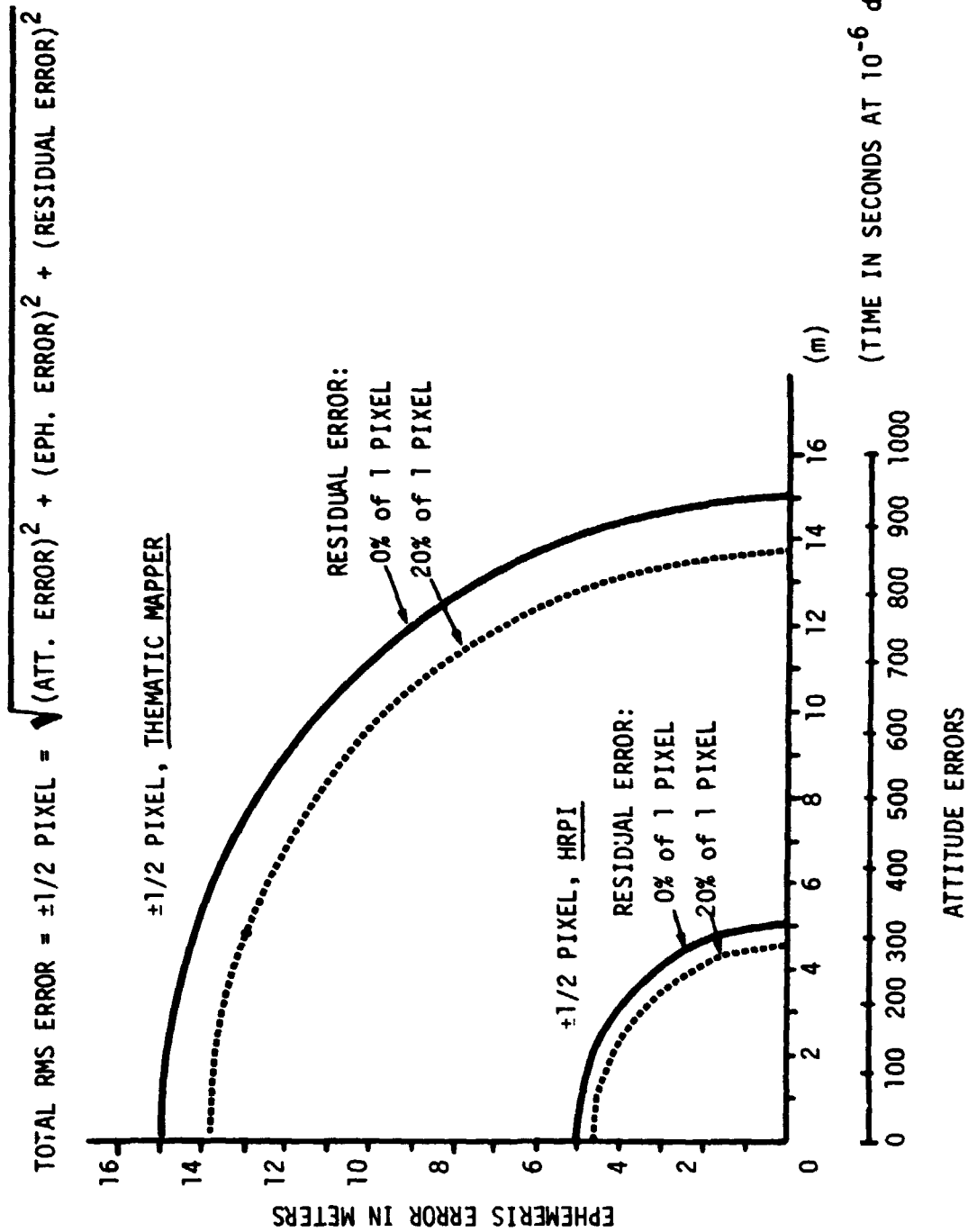


Figure 3. Total Geometric Error

the time required for the corresponding error in meters due to an attitude deviation rate assumed for the attitude control system of 10^{-6} deg/s (table 4). Indicated on the graph are the curves for $\pm 1/2$ pixel total error for both the TM and the HRPI with and without system residual errors included. (The effects of considering other errors, for example, such as ± 1 pixel or $\pm 1/4$ pixel, can be estimated by simply multiplying the numbers on each axis by 2 or 1/2, respectively.) The effects of residual errors are included to account for either unmodeled or unknown errors which might detract from overall geometric accuracy. These would include, for example, the internal errors resulting from sensor distortions, and computational errors resulting from approximations made in determining the output transformation. The sum total of all such unaccounted-for errors was assumed to be less than 20% of 1 pixel.

D Offset Pointing Correction

For this study it is assumed that the HRPI sensor will be pointed in an offset position for up to 50% of the data it provides. Although capable of pointing to $\pm 45^\circ$, corrections are only required to $\pm 20^\circ$. It is assumed that one geometric correction algorithm will be required for each 5° incremental change in the offset angle.

E Inverse Transformation and Output Generation

Two basic video interpolation algorithms are provided as user options: cubic convolution and nearest neighbor.

Up to 100% of the basic scene load is to be interpolated using cubic convolution.¹ Although very close, this algorithm (discussed in more depth in sec. 3.2.1) introduces some radiometric distortion from "interpolated" pixel values. On the other hand, nearest neighbor simply chooses the pixel value of the nearest neighbor to the interpolant point without altering its value. For this study, it is assumed that 30% of the basic scene load will be reprocessed using nearest neighbor for users interested in unaltered radiometric information.

Other output requirements and assumptions relate more specifically to the TM. Oversampling by a factor of 1.4 in cross track has an impact on output grid and interpolation. This problem is introduced in sec. 2.3.1.A and is expanded upon here.

If a choice is to be made to produce output data points equally spaced in the horizontal and vertical directions (under control of an interpolation algorithm), the two obvious candidates are to produce 1.4 output lines per input line in the vertical direction giving $(1.4n)^2 = 1.96n^2$ output data bytes per n input lines, or to produce 1 output sample per 1.4 input sample in the horizontal direction, yielding n^2 data points output for every n input lines ($1.4n^2$ input bytes). In the first case, the impression may be created that the frequency content of the data is higher than is actually the case; a real data volume load of 40% is imposed on all users of the data in digital format. The second case seems to be losing data, and will raise the question of the utility of the 40% oversampling performed at the sensor. An objective analysis² of the electronic bandwidth of the sensor system and the effectiveness (accuracy) of interpolation algorithms in producing less than one output point per input point is necessary to evaluate the alternative.

Recall that, to produce useful sizing estimates, the system loading was estimated at the output. That is, 10^{11} bits/day/sensor is the required unique output from the IPS. Alternative processing is sized at 35%, giving a total sensor output of 1.35×10^{11} bits/day. The interpolation scheme used in the sizing produces one output pixel byte per input pixel; the rectangular output grid is assumed.

²For instance, the McDonnell Douglas study, Ref. 2, applied to the current scanner design, with a digital interpolation algorithm and, perhaps, a different objective function (error measure).

Weighting the computer load estimate for the interpolation and output function (sec. 3.2) by 1.4 or 0.715, as appropriate, gives a good adjustment to reflect 40% (more or less) output data for the same input data.

Additional output requirements relate to formatting the output data:

1. Subframing capability with and without digital enlargement (by interpolation) is required, but for only 5% of the data. This is for users interested in only portions of a given frame.
2. Formatting multiple HRPI scenes on the same photographic image is required.
3. Pixel-interleaved output format from the computer to the master archival storage (i.e., high-density digital tape) is assumed. A discussion of the rationale for this format is presented in sec. 3.2.3.D.

The details behind the specific algorithm selected to perform the above functional requirements including processing load estimates is given in sec. 3.2.

2.4 PRODUCT REQUIREMENTS

Products defined in this study for system sizing are summarized in table 5. Basically, two general types are required:

1. Digital data stored on high-density digital tape (HDDT) and computer-compatible tape (CCT)
2. Imagery data on 9.5 in master film, scale $1:10^6$

In each case, archival products for storage are distinguished from user products intended for distribution.

TABLE 5
SUMMARY OF PRODUCT REQUIREMENTS

Digital Data

1. High-Density Digital Tape
 - a. Archival Products
 - Two copies of all data (i.e., 1.35 times basic scene load)
 - Pixel-interleaved format
 - b. User Products
 - 20% of all data
 - Interleaved or band-sequential format
2. Computer-Compatible Tape (User Products Only)
 - a. 6250 or 1600 Bits/in Tape
 - b. 10% of Basic Scene Load
 - c. Editing and Subframing Capability

Imagery Data

1. 9.5 in Film Images (Scale 1:10⁶)
 - a. Archival Products
 - Two copies of one band for each sensor
 - Cubic convolution interpolated data only
 - Black and white copies (growth capability for color)
 - b. User Products
 - Up to 50% of all cubic convolution interpolated data
 - Black and white copies (growth capability for color)

These requirements were chosen as representative of the need at the time of this study, but are by no means definitive. Indeed, ERTS-1 experience has shown that product requirements, particularly product quantities, tend to expand as new applications of the data become known. This should be kept in mind and a system design provided that has growth capability.

2.4.1 Digital Products

Archival requirements for digital data include two copies of all the data processed (i.e., 1.35 times the basic scene load) stored on HDDT in pixel interleaved format (a rationale for this format is presented in sec. 3.2.3.D). HDDT is assumed the master archival storage medium for all data produced.

User digital products, both standing order and retrospective, are assumed required for up to 30% of all data processed. This includes 20% on HDDT and 10% on CCT (intended for users with limited equipment and/or data requirements).

HDDT products are required in both pixel interleaved and band sequential formats. Also CCT production should include editing and sub-framing capability.

2.4.2 Imagery Products

Archival requirements for imagery data include two copies of one frame of each scene (from both sensors) recorded on a 9.5 in film format, scale 1:106. Currently the copies can be black and white, but growth capability to color should be kept in mind. The copies are required for cubic-convolution interpolated data only.

User imagery products are assumed required for up to 50% of all cubic convolution interpolated data. Again, copies can be black and white but growth capability to color should be kept in mind.

2.5 INTERFACE CONSTRAINTS

2.5.1 Introduction

During this study, various requirements were established for such quantities as total data volume, scene coverage, sensor resolution, and transmission rate. Since a number of these are interrelated, analysis was required to show their interaction in a parametric way. The results, presented in graphical form here, were used to insure that a self-consistent set of requirements was selected for the point design.

In summary, the analysis showed that the following base-line requirements used for this study are self-consistent:

IPS Loading

- 1.0×10^{11} bits per day per sensor from the satellite
- 1.35×10^{11} bits per day per sensor to be processed

Sensors

- Thematic mapper
 - Scene = 185 km \times 185 km
 - Framing = 7 bands per scene, with 30-m IFOV in bands 1-6, 140-m IFOV in band 7
 - Bits per pixel = 7
 - Processor time available = 8 hours
 - Sample overlap = 1.0 \times 1.0 and 1.0 \times 1.4
 - 6300 pixels per line @ 1.0 \times 1.0 overlap
 - 8800 pixels per line @ 1.0 \times 1.4 overlap

- HRPI
 - Scene = 48 km × 185 km
 - Framing = 4 bands per scene with 4800 detectors per band and 10-m IFOV
 - Bits per pixel = 7
 - Processor time available = 8 hours

Orbit

- 914 km circular, polar orbit similar to ERTS-1

Data Transmission

- 120 Mb/s^{*} per sensor real time only
- ≤20% overhead for the thematic mapper
- ≤5% overhead for the HRPI

Two important interface constraints appearing above and not discussed elsewhere are the satellite orbit and data transmission. The orbit presently specified is similar to ERTS-1 with an altitude of 914 km, giving an 18-day repeat cycle. The communications link is presently X-band with a transmission rate of 120 Mb/s for each sensor. Sensor overheads are specified at ≤20% for the thematic mapper and ≤5% for HRPI. It should be emphasized that no means of data storage was considered for on board the satellite resulting in real time data acquisition only. Three acquisition stations specified for this real-time-only data reception are located at Goddard, Fairbanks, Alaska, and Goldstone, California.

* Mb ≡ bits × 10⁶.

2.5.2 Thematic Mapper Interface Analysis

Three sets of graphs were drawn for the TM to show the interrelationship of the total number of bits per day processed, the transmission rate, the processing time available, and the number of pixels per line. In addition, the number of pixels per line is determined by the cross-track swath width, the sensor resolution, and the amount of sample overlap in the cross-track direction. Two sample overlaps were considered: 1.0×1.0 sample overlap indicates that one sample per IFOV is taken in each direction, 1.0×1.4 sample overlap indicates that one sample per IFOV is taken in the along-track direction while 1.4 samples per IFOV are taken in the cross-track direction.

The following parameters (consistent with table 1) were used in calculating the graphs:

- Scene = 185 km \times 185 km
- Framing = 7 bands per scene, with 14 detectors in bands 1-6, 3 detectors in band 7
- Coverage = 25 to 75 scenes per day
- Bits per pixel = 7
- Processor time available = 8 hours
- Sample overlap = 1.0×1.0 and 1.0×1.4
- Orbit = 914 km, circular

Figures 4a and 4b showing pixels per line versus bits per day for the two sample overlaps were computed by converting the number of pixels per scene to bits per scene and multiplying by the desired number of scenes per day. For the desired processing load (1.35×10^{11} bits/day) the resulting number of pixels per line is indicated for each sample overlap. (This results in 6300 pixels/line for 1.0×1.0 overlap as shown in fig. 4b and $1.4 \times 6300 = 8800$ pixels/line for 1.0×1.4 overlap as shown in fig. 4a.) From fig. 4b, it is clear that up to 80 scenes per day can be processed at the design point. This number reduces to 57 scenes per day in fig. 4a because of the 1.4 overlap factor. In order to achieve 75 scenes per day, the number of bits per day must be increased to 1.8×10^{11} .

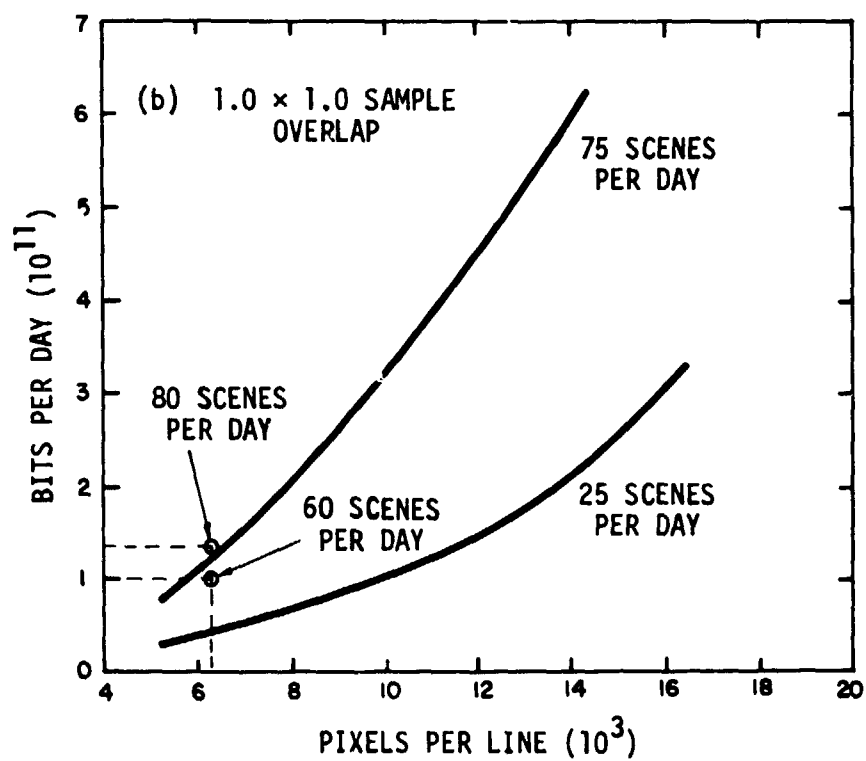
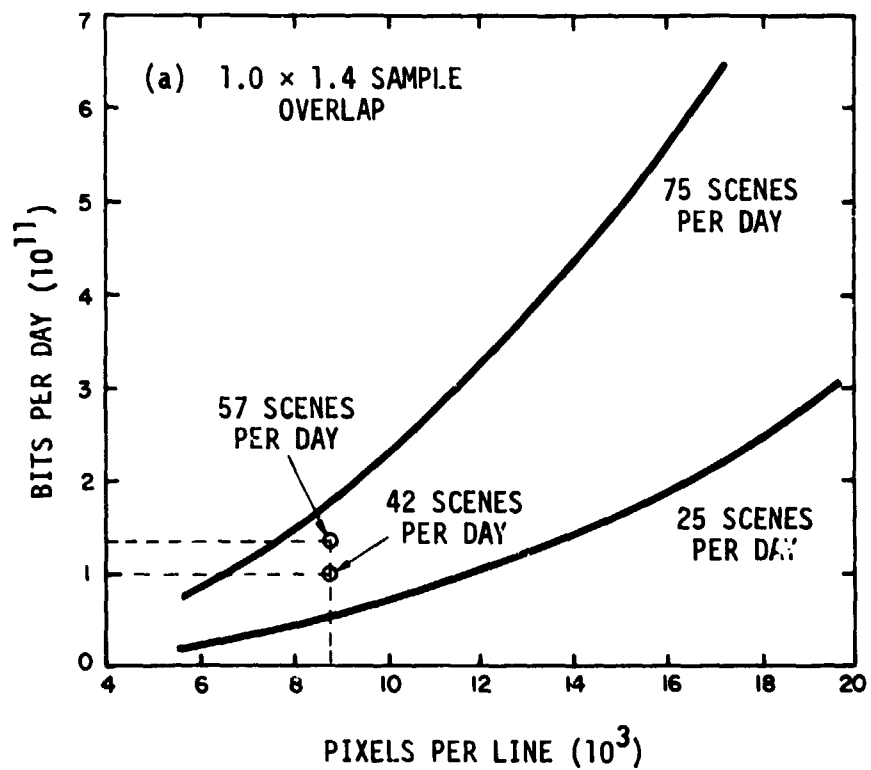


Figure 4. Thematic Mapper - Pixels per Line vs. Bits per Day

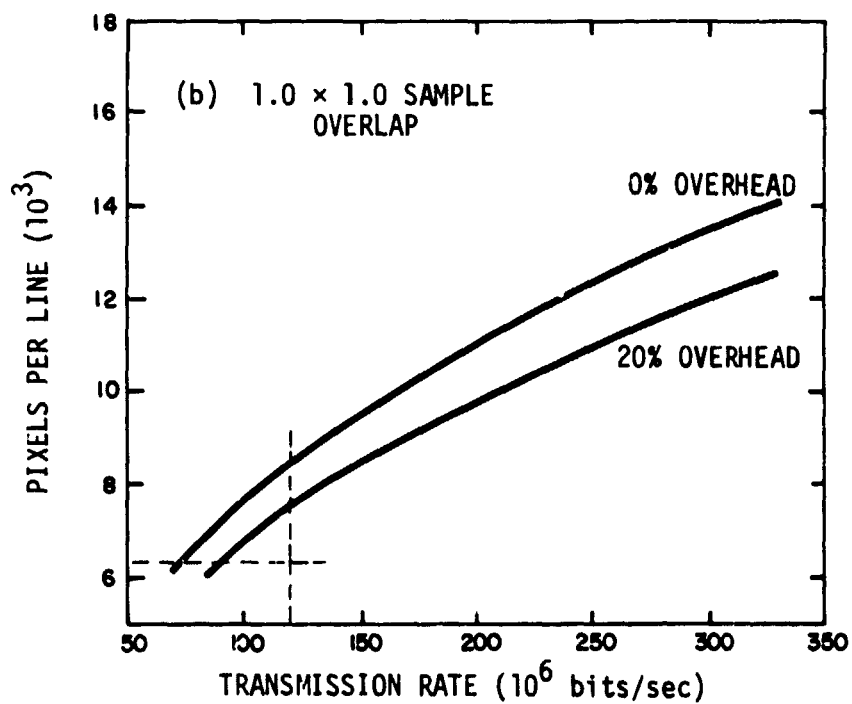
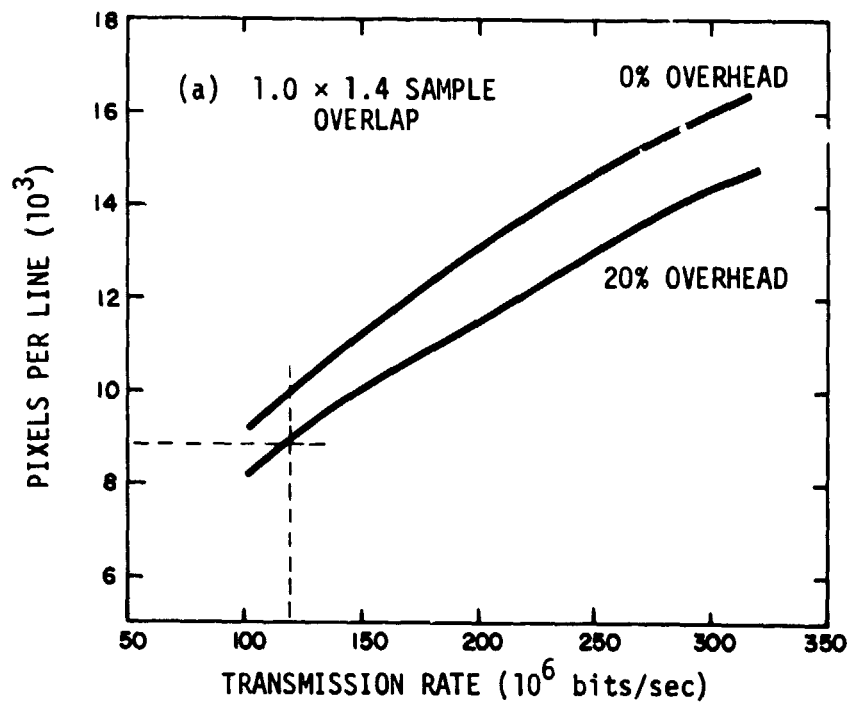


Figure 5. Thematic Mapper - Transmission Rate vs. Pixels per Line

Figures 5a and 5b show transmission rate versus pixels per line. These graphs were computed using the equation

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\text{pixels/line}) = & [(\text{bits/s})(25 \text{ s/scene}) \\
 & \times (1 - \text{Overhead})(\text{overlap factor})(1 \text{ pixel / bits}) \\
 & \times (1 \text{ scene/6 frames})]^{1/2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Overhead is defined as that portion of the transmitted signal which does not enter the processor but is used for parity checks, etc. Six frames per scene were used because of the lower resolution in the seventh band. Indicated on the graphs is the number of pixels per line resulting from the specified transmission rate of 120 Mb/s. At both sample overlaps, no problem is encountered for real-time data transmission of up to 20% overhead. However, at an overlap of 1.0×1.4 , 9000 pixels per line is the maximum obtainable. If more pixels per line are desired, either the overhead must be reduced or the transmission rate must be increased. The total number of bits or scenes per day is dependent upon the length of transmission time.

Figures 6a and 6b show the relation of pixels per line to available processing time. These graphs were computed from figs. 4a and 4b by converting bits to pixels and an 8-hour processing day into microseconds. Indicated on the graphs are the number of pixels per line (determined from previous graphs) and the maximum processing time available per pixel ($1.5 \mu\text{sec}$) at a data load of 1.35×10^{11} bits per day. For 1.0×1.0 overlap, fig. 6b indicates that it is possible to process more than 75 scenes per day at $1.5 \mu\text{s}$ per pixel processing speed. Figure 6a (1.0×1.4 overlap) shows that $1.2 \mu\text{s}$ per pixel are available to process 75 scenes in 8 hours. Implicit in the graphs is the fact that, if the processing is to be completed in less than 8 hours, the processing time required per pixel is lowered by a proportional amount.

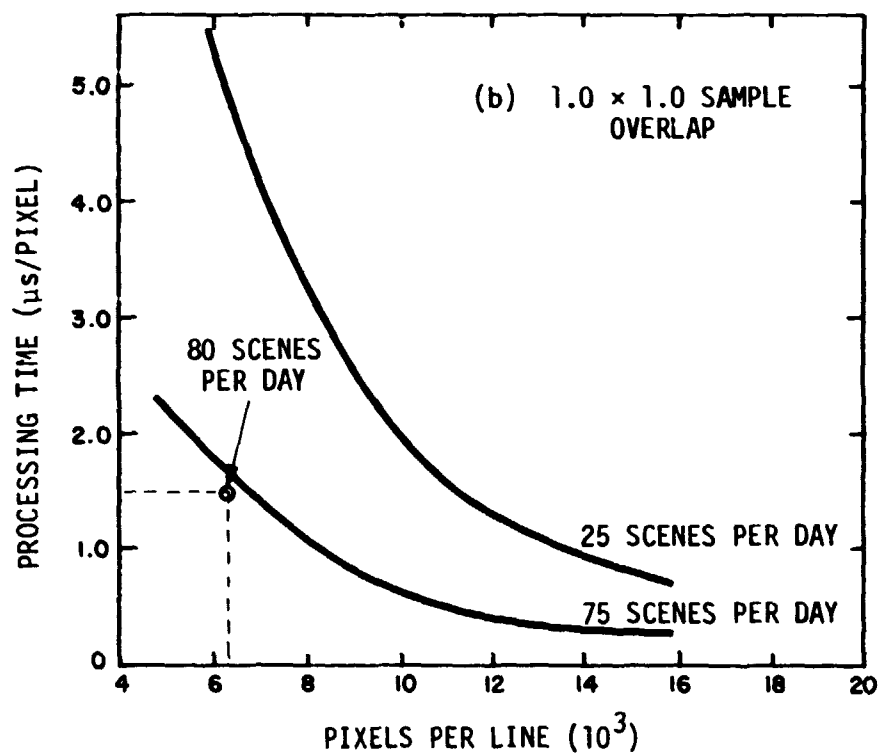
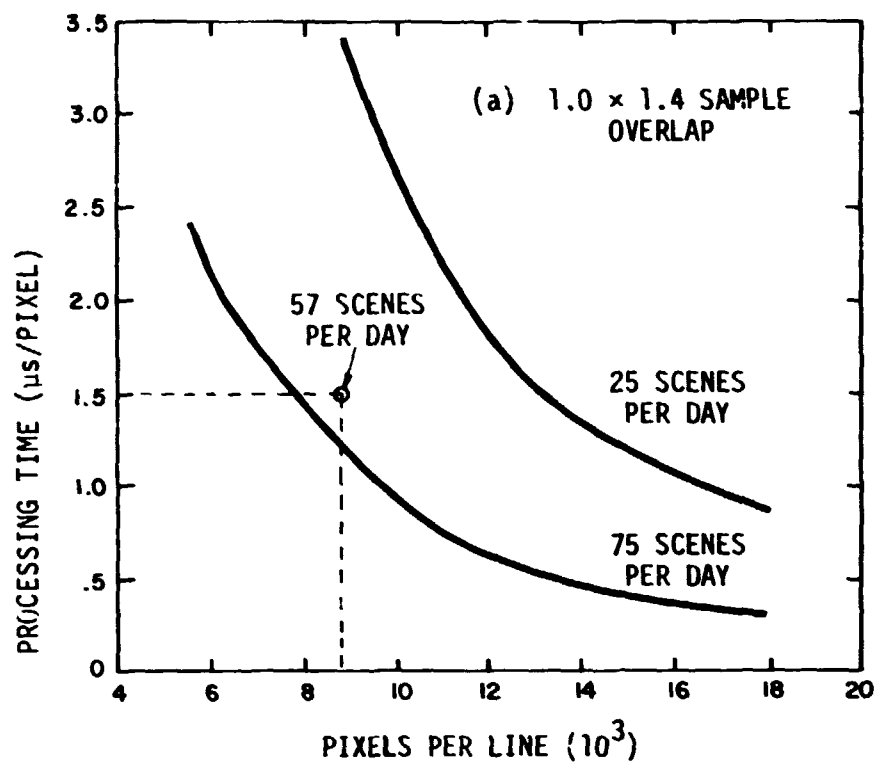


Figure 6. Thematic Mapper - Pixel per Line vs. Processing Time

2.5.3 HRPI Interface Analysis

The three types of graphs drawn for the HRPI sensor show the relation of the total number of bits per day, the transmission rate, the processing time available, and the along-track resolution (or the ground spacing of adjacent IFOVs between successive sampling of a detector). The parameters used for calculating the graphs include the following:

- Scene = 48 km × 185 km
- Framing = 4 bands per scene with 4800 detectors per band
- Coverage = 25 to 75 scenes per day
- Spacecraft ground velocity = 6.47 km/s (914-km orbit)
- Bits per pixel = 7
- Processor time available = 8 hours

In fig. 7, resolution versus bits per day is indicated for the specified data load of 1.35×10^{11} bits per day and the desired resolution of 10 m. The graph was computed using the equation

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{bits/day}) &= (4800 \text{ pixels/line})(1.85 \times 10^5 \text{ m/frame}) \\ &\times (\text{line/resolution in m})(4 \text{ frames/scene}) \\ &\times (\text{scenes/day})(7 \text{ bits/pixel}) \end{aligned}$$

At 10-m resolution, 54 scenes per day are possible for the 1.35×10^{11} bits per day. In order to reach 75 scenes per day, 1.85×10^{11} bits must be processed each day.

Figure 8 shows the relation of resolution to transmission rate. The graph was computed using the equation

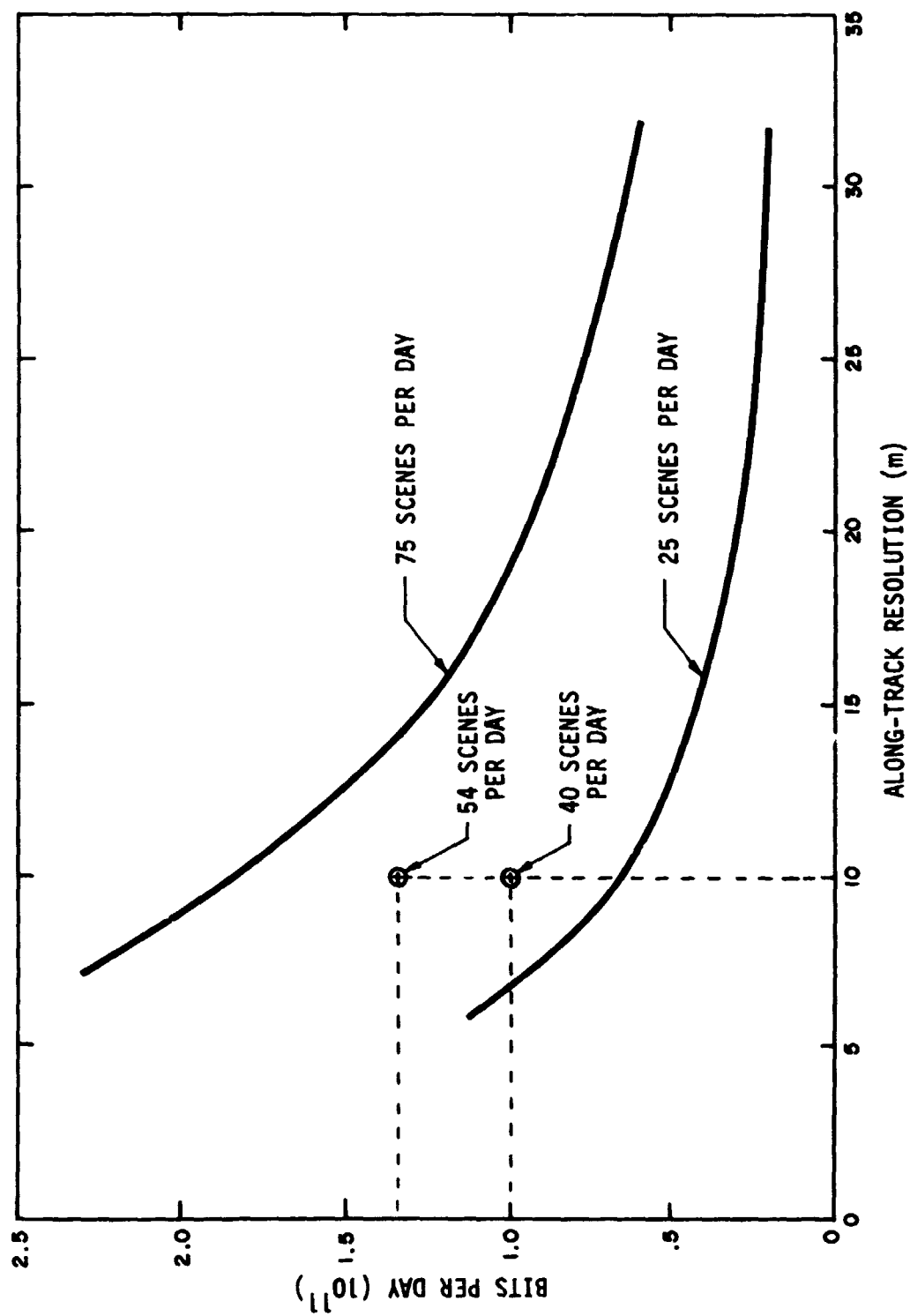


Figure 7. HRPI - Resolution vs. Bits per Day

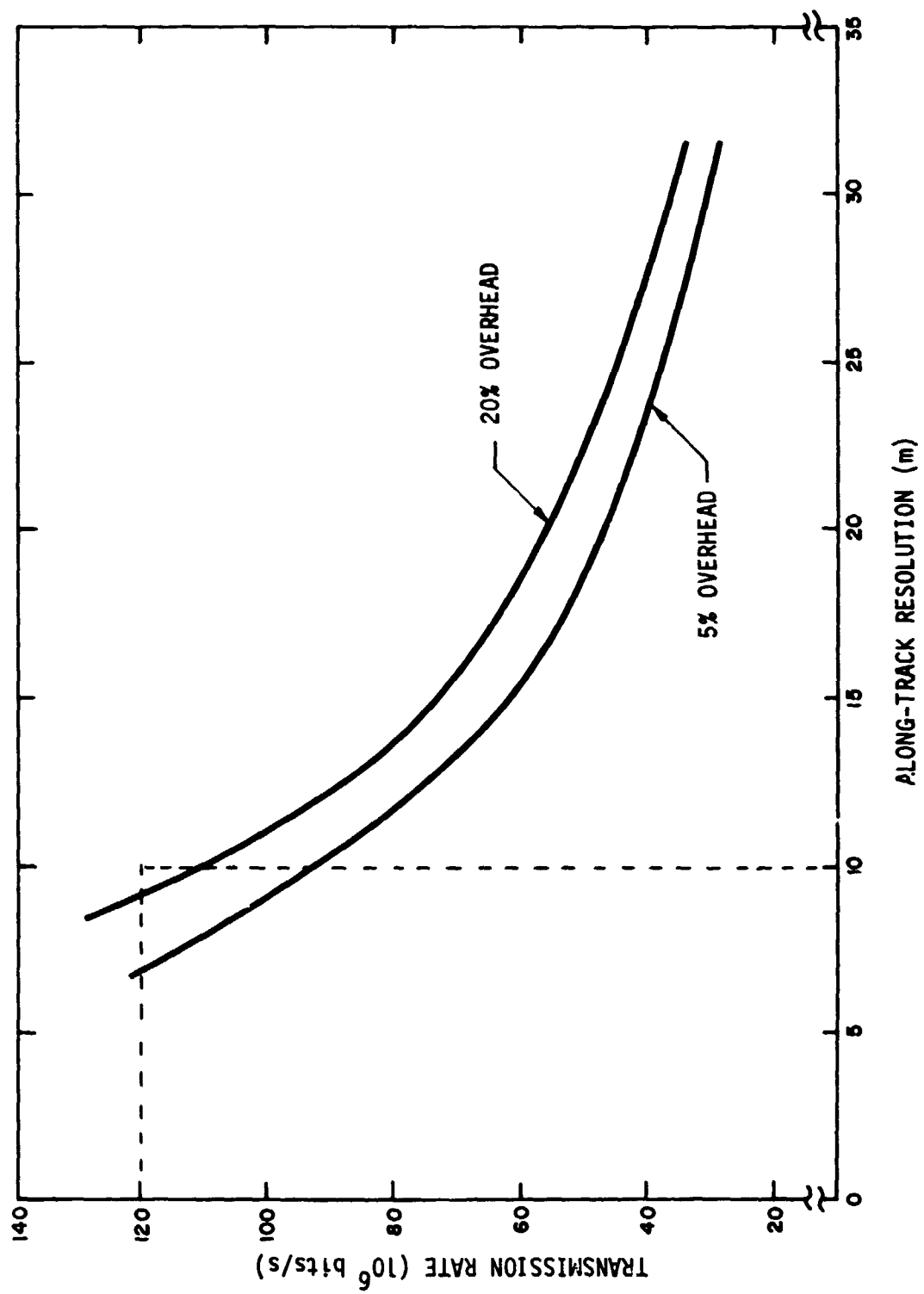


Figure 8. HRPI - Resolution vs. Transmission Rate

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\text{number of bits/s}) &= (6.47 \times 10^3 \text{ m/s}) (\text{line/resolution in m}) \\
 &\times (4800 \text{ pixels/line}) (4 \text{ bands}) \\
 &\times [1/(1 - \text{overhead})] (7 \text{ bits/pixel})
 \end{aligned}$$

Where overhead is defined as that portion of the transmitted signal which does not enter the processor but is used for parity checks, etc. For 10-m resolution, over 20% overhead is allowable at 120 Mb/s; but when the resolution is increased to less than 10-m the required transmission rate begins to increase rapidly.

Resolution versus processing time available, shown in fig. 9, was computed from fig. 7 by converting bits to pixels and an 8-hour processing day into seconds. If the maximum amount of time available per pixel (1.5 μ s) is used, only 54 scenes per day can be processed. To obtain 75 scenes per day the processing speed must be increased to 1.1 μ s.

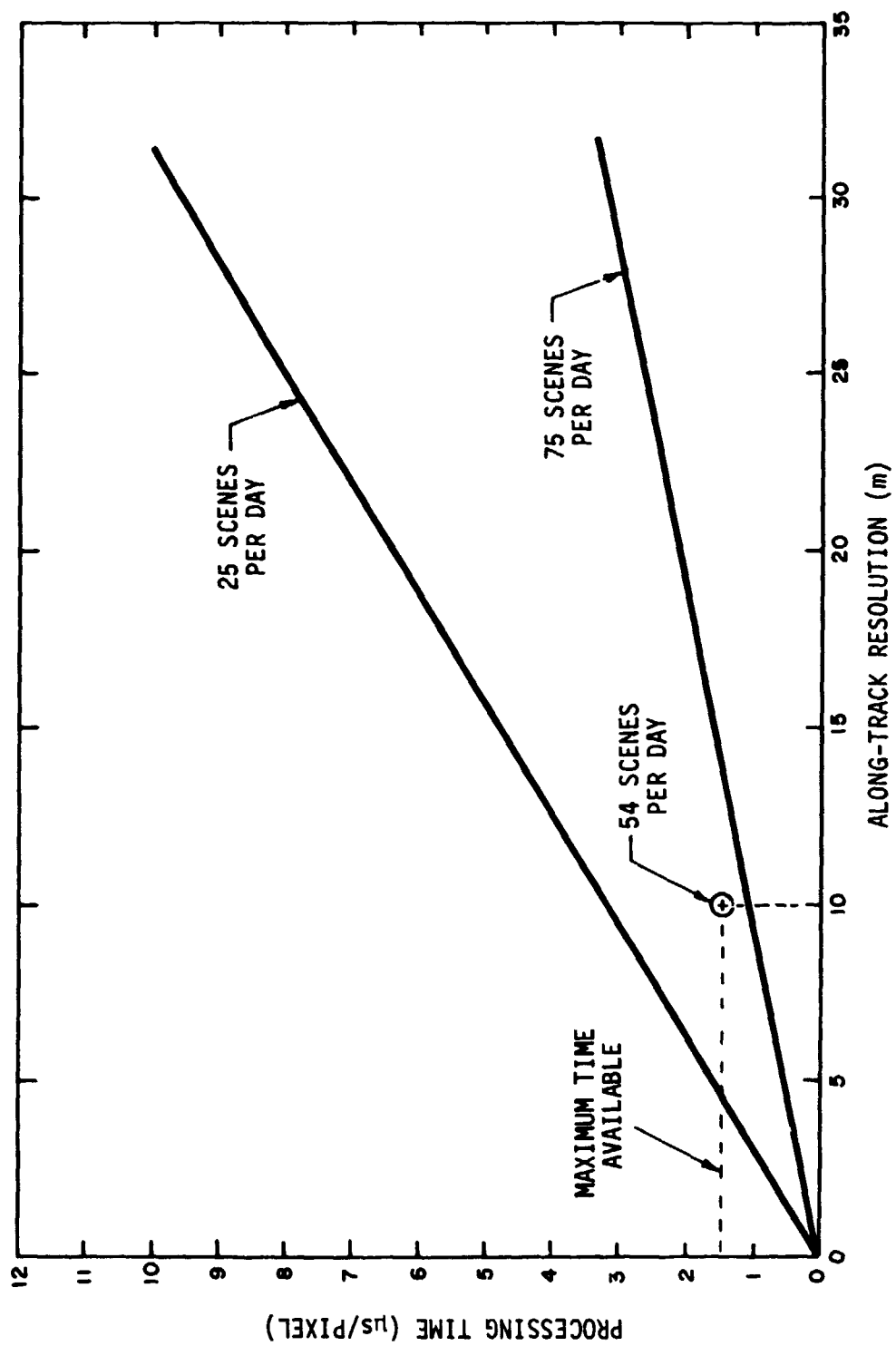


Figure 9. HRPI - Resolution vs. Processing Time

3 DESIGN APPROACHES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section develops point designs for both central and regional image processing facilities. These designs incorporate the operational and functional requirements, products, and system constraints discussed in sec. 2.

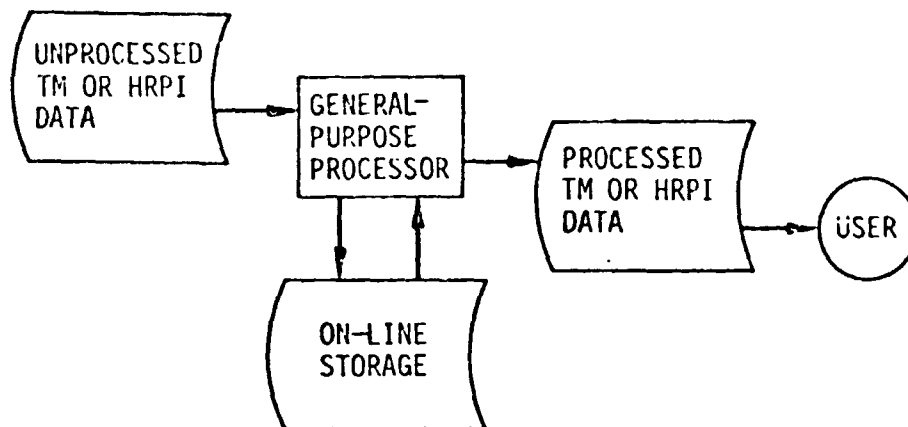
Where possible, currently available or near future technology are identified and incorporated into the designs. This includes: general-purpose computer hardware, special-purpose digital hardware, high-density digital recorders, and image recorders. If specific hardware was found inadequate, the required improvements are identified.

The resulting designs reflect a low-to-medium scale of detail; it would be expected that additional efforts at a much higher level of detail be completed prior to final selection of specific configurations. One should note that the intent was to establish technical feasibility and first-order costs only. Indeed, the designs developed reflect simply one way of approaching the problem--one that is not necessarily optimal.

The following sections discuss the central and regional facilities separately. For convenience, the IPS for each facility is broken down into three basic stages--preprocessor (or input), processor, and post-processor (or output).

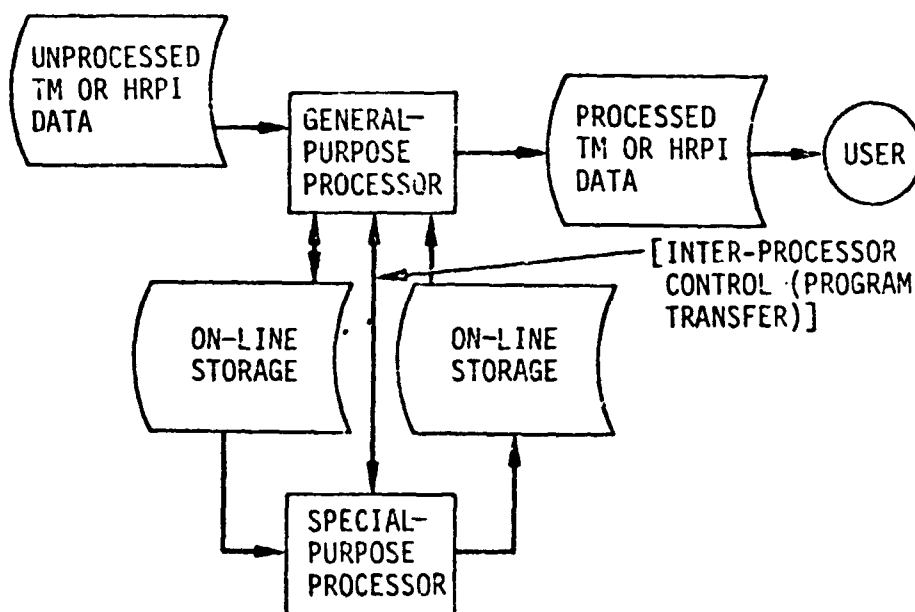
3.2 CENTRAL FACILITY CONFIGURATION

The general configurations studied involve (1) the use of a large-scale, general-purpose digital computer system, and (2) the combination of a large- or medium-scale general-purpose machine with special-purpose hardware. These are shown in fig. 10.



AN-39814

a) General-Purpose Processor Organization



b) Special-Purpose Processor Organization

Figure 10. General-Purpose and Special-Purpose/Host Computer Organizations

The investigation includes (1) specification of the total computational burden (i.e., that imposed by the data loading) which must be borne by the IPS; (2) the identification of appropriate processor configurations which can support the required computation rates; and (3) identification of appropriate preprocessor and post-processor configurations which can support the required data input and output rates and product requirements. Items 1 and 2 are addressed in sec. 3.2.1 for systems centered about general-purpose processors exclusively; and in sec. 3.2.2 for systems incorporating special-purpose hardware. Item 3 is addressed in sec. 3.2.3 for both configurations. Finally, sec. 3.2.4 provides a summary of the recommended configuration.

3.2.1 Systems Centered About General-Purpose Processors Exclusively

A Computer Resource Estimation

In this section we develop detailed estimates for the data processing resources required for processing the TM and HRPI image data. These estimates are expressed in a relatively machine-independent form; relating the estimates to actual machine architectural configurations is addressed in the next section.

(1) Estimating Procedure and Assumptions

(A) Data Processor Estimates

For the purposes of computer resource estimation, we assume that the EOS data is manipulated on a general-purpose computer system which possesses infinite local memory. The general-purpose processor is assumed to have a typical complement of instructions which operate in strictly serial fashion. Algorithms implemented on this processor have aggregate execution times which are directly related to the overall instruction counts incurred by the algorithm. The computer resource estimates are expressed in terms of "standard instruction executions."

Of course, there is no such thing as a "standard instruction"; typical image processing algorithms employ a wide variety of machine instructions. For estimation purposes, however, we take the fixed-point add operation as the standard of comparison, and relate the difficulty of all other operations to this particular instruction. The fixed-point add operation is assumed to act in the following way: it retrieves one operand from processor memory, adds the operand to the contents of one of the processor's operating registers, and leaves the result in the operating register.

The relationship between this standard instruction and other common processor operations is taken as the following:

Fixed multiply operation = 2 fixed add operations

Fixed divide operation = 4 fixed add operations

(B) Computer Memory Estimates

Estimates of required memory can be made independently of the estimates of required processor "power," provided that (1) the actual computer system is relatively insensitive to the assumption of infinite memory, and (2) the actual computer system has "sufficient" internal storage to support execution of the algorithms.

(C) Input/Output Capacity Estimates

The actual EOS computer system must have sufficient I/O capacity to support the estimated data transfer rates. As with estimates of processor memory size, estimates of required peripheral capacity can be uncoupled from processor estimates provided that there is sufficient capacity in actual machines. Transfer rates on typical computer systems are only a weak function of processor activity, since these operations are overlapped with processor functions. Hence, estimates of peripheral capacity are unimportant in regard to processor estimates so long as there is a capability for multiplexing system I/O and processor use. In other words, with present-day computer architectures, it is generally possible

to replicate I/O capacity without excessive interference with processor capacity.

(2) EOS MIPS Estimates For Each Major Function

The computing requirements for each EOS processing step can be expressed in terms of the total number of instructions; this value varies with the type of algorithm performed and with the total size of each image frame (i.e., spectral band within a scene). The EOS data processing facility is projected to operate 7 days per week, 16 hours per day; this assumption is then used to compute the number of instructions per second (expressed in MIPS, or millions of instructions per second) which must be delivered by the EOS computer system.

(A) Basic Parameters

The TM and HRPI parameters which must be used to guide these computations are:

	TM	HRPI
<u>Input Scenes/Day</u>		
Basic Scene Load	42	40
5% Retrospective Processing	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>
<u>TOTAL</u>	44	42
<u>Output Scenes/Day</u>		
Cubic Convolution Interpolation (100%)	44	42
Nearest Neighbor Interpolation (30%)	<u>13</u>	<u>12</u>
<u>TOTAL</u>	57	54
<u>Scene Data</u>		
Number & Size of a Frame (Pixel)	6 @ 8820 × 6300 1 @ 1900 × 1350	4 @ 4800 × 18,500
<u>TOTAL (Pixel/Scene)</u>	3.36×10^8	3.552×10^8

(B) Scene Input

Each scene's pixel data must be made local to the EOS processor prior to the radiometric correction stage (see (C) below). For the HRPI scenes, this step involves "unscrambling" of the image data

into the "natural" internal order. This situation arises because the HRPI sensors are organized in a manner which results in adjacent pixels being up to 38,000 pixel positions apart in the input stream. The algorithmic solution to this "unscrambling" operation is relatively straightforward, requiring only the reservation of approximately 38,000 bytes of processor memory as a "loop" in which the intermediate pixel values are stored prior to their final association according to the adjacency rules, and prior to delivery to mass storage for later processing. Other overheads may be involved, but it is evident that allowing one instruction execution (equivalent) per pixel for the input phase is more than sufficient.

(C) Radiometric Correction

The radiometric correction stage compensates for time and spatial variations in the sensor sensitivities. For estimation purposes, we assume that the radiometric correction can be performed for relatively large numbers of pixels located in a set of subframe areas; a subframe area containing approximately 529 such areas.* This number corresponds to partitioning the data into 23 regions in each dimension.

The instruction counts for each subframe correction are as follows:

TM ₆	14.7×10^4 instructions/subframe
TM ₁	0.5×10^4 instructions/subframe
HRPI	24.1×10^4 instructions/subframe

* Note that for the HRPI data it may be necessary to perform this correction prior to the "input" stage operations which unscramble pixel positions. However, the order in which these two operations is performed does not affect the overall instruction counts.

where TM_6 and TM_1 represent the six higher resolution frames and the lower resolution frame, respectively. The total number of instructions required for each scene which result from this computation are as follows:

TM	4.69×10^8 instructions/scene
HRPI	$5/10 \times 10^8$ instructions/scene

(D) Ground Control Point Correlation

In the EOS only one ground control point (GCP) correlation computation is performed for each complete orbit of the satellite. The remainder of the information necessary to develop the detailed geometric correction transformation is derived from tracking data. The instruction counts for this computation have already been developed in ref. 3; in this case, we assume a GCP search region of 512×512 pixels in size, and a correlation region of 256×256 pixels. With these values, using the algorithm described in ref. 3, and dividing the GCP load among the total number of scenes/sensor/day, we arrive at the following instruction counts:

TM	1.67×10^6 instructions/scene
HRPI	1.52×10^6 instructions/scene

(E) Offset Pointing

The HRPI can, as we have already noted, be pointed off the "boresight" by as much as 45° in either direction. As much as 50% (the assumed value here) of the HRPI data will require some compensation for the off-boresight pointing angle. This compensation amounts to a remapping algorithm which "expands" the scene to conform to the equivalent scene as it would have appeared from a 0° offset angle; the actual transformations required would, of course, be a function of the exact offset angle. It is expected that one such transformation algorithm would apply to a range of offset angles, so that only a few such transformation algorithms would have to be maintained. We assume that all such algorithms require the

same computational resource, which amounts primarily to a one-for-one replacement of pixels from the uncorrected scene to the corrected scene. The additional instruction required for 50% non-zero pointing angle is:

$$\text{HRPI} \quad 1.8 \times 10^8 \text{ instructions/scene}$$

(F) Inverse Transformation

After sufficient information about the scene is available (and after correction of the offset pointing error, if any), it is necessary to generate the exact transformation which will be used to generate the geometrically correct output frame from the uncorrected input frame. This transformation is approximately equivalent to that described in ref. 3 with the exception that it must be applied to a different number of frames. The number of instructions required is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{TM}_6 & 4.38 \times 10^5 \text{ instructions/frame} \\ \text{TM}_1 & 0.04 \times 10^5 \text{ instructions/frame} \\ \text{HRPI} & 3.54 \times 10^6 \text{ instructions/frame} \end{array}$$

After the transformation is generated (as an $N \times N$ grid matrix, where N ranges in sizes from 8 for TM_1 to 96 for HRPI), this transformation must be applied to develop the mapping functions which will determine the regions within which actual output pixel locations all remain within contiguous input-frame pixel quads. Applying this transformation requires the following number of instructions.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{TM} & 330M^2 + 18090M + 2.78 \times 10^8 \text{ instructions/scene} \\ \text{HRPI} & 165M^2 + 19048M + 2.72 \times 10^8 \text{ instructions/scene} \end{array}$$

and, for M (the number of pixels between grid lines) = 1000, the following instruction counts result:

TM	6.26×10^8 instructions/scene
HRPI	4.56×10^8 instructions/scene

(c) Output Image Pixel

The regions identified in the foregoing computations are those in which interpolation of the output frame pixel values can occur relatively easily. Two algorithms for this output interpolation are employed in the EOS:

1. The nearest neighbor interpolation scheme, in which the output pixel value is taken as the value of the input image pixel nearest to the location of the output image position within the input image pixel grid.
2. The cubic convolution interpolation scheme, which computes output image pixel values using an approximation to the $(\sin x)/x$ functional form known to be optimal for the types of sampling performed by the sensor systems.

Because these computations are performed so often, it is important to have firm instruction count estimates for them.

Nearest Neighbor Interpolation. This computation is relatively simple, and, as has been described in ref. 3, can be performed with an effective instruction cost of 2 instructions/pixel. The total instruction count for nearest neighbor interpolation is therefore:

TM	6.72×10^8 instructions/scene
HRPI	7.256×10^8 instructions/scene

Cubic Convolution Interpolation. The cubic convolution interpolation scheme is based on the assumption that the output amplitude at a particular point can be expressed in the form:

$$A(x) = \sum_{i=1}^4 A(x_i) f(x - x_i)$$

where the x_i are the input-pixel positions, x is the location (in the x -direction) of the desired output pixel, $f(.)$ is the unit impulse response at $x = 0$, and $A(.)$ is a predetermined function which is the basis of the transformation. Four steps are required to determine the value of the signal at position x ; these steps are then repeated in the y -direction to arrive at the approximate (i.e., the interpolated) output value. The four steps are:

- Step 1: Computation of the four differences $(x - x_i)$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$
- Step 2: Combination of these differences with input pixel amplitudes, i.e., the computations: $A_i(x - x_i) \cdot (x - x_i)$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$
- Step 3: Use of these values as indexes into four precomputed tables which represent the partial contribution of each pixel to the output pixel amplitude
- Step 4: Addition of the four selected table values to arrive at the output image pixel value

This computation requires the following instruction executions:

- Step 1: 4 subtractions = 4 equivalent adds
- Step 2: 4 multiplications = 8 equivalent adds
- Step 3: 4 table accesses = 4 equivalent adds
- Step 4: 3 additions = 3 equivalent adds
- Total 19 equivalent adds

Because this computation is performed for each pixel in both the x - and the y -direction, the total instruction count for the cubic convolution algorithm is:

Cubic Convolution: 38 instructions/pixel

We can now compute the total instruction counts necessary for generation of TM and HRPI output images, as follows:

TM	1.242×10^{10} instructions/frame
HRPI	1.342×10^{10} instructions/frame

In addition to the computational burden as indicated by the foregoing instruction counts, the EOS computer system will require a certain portion of its resource to control all activities extant at any one instant. For EOS we expect a somewhat greater system overhead than for all-digital ERTS discussed in ref. 3. And as a result, we assume approximately 15% additional resource devoted to operating system functions.

(H) Summary MIPS Estimates

Table 6 shows the summary MIPS estimates for EOS. These values were arrived at by multiplying the per frame or per scene counts indicated above by the total number of scenes and dividing by the number of seconds of execution time available in the assumed workday.

(3) EOS Computer Memory and I/O Requirements

The memory requirements for the EOS machine can be analyzed in terms of the amount of information which must be available to any algorithm at any instant. It is clear that EOS pixels can be stored in 8-bit bytes, so that the analysis can proceed in terms of the numbers of pixels which must be local to the processor at any instant. (It is important to note that "local" does not necessarily mean that the data is stored "in core," but only that the data be stored somewhere on the machine's primary/secondary memory complex in such a way that any executing algorithm is never "starved" for data by virtue of the data allocation chosen.) The largest frame in the EOS specifications is HRPI frame, with approximately 90 million pixels; if the memory capacity is sufficient for processing of this frame, it is also sufficient for processing of all other types of frames (i.e., TM_1 and TM_6).

TABLE 6
EOS MIPS ESTIMATES

<u>Function</u>	THEMATIC MAPPER 44 Input Scenes/Day 57 Output Scenes/Day	HRPI 42 Input Scenes/Day 54 Output Scenes/Day
	(MIPS)	(MIPS)
1 Input	0.260	0.262
2 Radiometric Correction	0.359	0.371
3 Ground Control Point Correlation	0.520	0.525
4 Offset Pointing Correction	-	0.131
5 Inverse Transformation	0.478	0.335
6 Output Interpolation		
6a Nearest Neighbor (30% of Input)	0.155	0.158
6b Cubic Convolution (100% of Input)	9.648	10.032
7 Operating System Overhead	1.260	1.260
Subtotal	<u>12.68</u>	<u>13.08</u>
TOTAL		26

The total memory space on contemporary computer systems is clearly sufficient to store a number of complete frames. For example, the IBM 3330 disk system with 8 spindles (but without the double-density option) can store 800,000,000 bytes; this is enough space for 11 complete frames. Typically, internal working memory (core storage) consists of 2×10^6 bytes or more. (This may exist as 512K 4-byte words, for example.) Thus, at least 2% of the largest frame can be resident at one instant; or, more practically, about 1% of a frame can be operated upon at any one instant, allowing 50% of the active memory as a transfer area. This memory configuration is insufficient to support the algorithms' execution only in case any algorithm requires less time to process 1% of the data of the largest frame than it takes the memory system to transfer an equal amount to and from the working memory region.

The transfer rate for the IBM 3330 disk system is 0.806×10.6 bytes/s; this transfer can occur to a processor memory region not used by the processor (i.e., the input/output buffer section) essentially without interference with the processor operation. Transfer of an entire HRPI frame to or from memory requires, therefore, on the order of 112 s. Assuming (conservatively) that the 468 input frames to be processed each 16-hour day are all HRPI frames, approximately 123 s are available to process each frame. (It requires a 26-MIPS machine to do this, of course.) Thus, a 2 million byte central memory (core memory) appears to achieve a closely balanced operation in which 123 s of processing is overlapped with 112 s of input/output transfer of the just-processed, or about-to-be-processed, image data. It is important to note that this illustration of memory balance estimation is based on existence of only one 0.8-mega-byte channel; if more channels are available, then the input/output function can be performed in parallel, and the period during which processing and input and output must overlap is reduced to only 60 s. It is clear, however, that a single processor must have sufficient storage space to contain approximately 2% of the largest frame if the execution is not to outrun the data manipulation.

B General-Purpose Processor Architectural Alternatives

The estimated total machine processing load for a system incorporating a single, general-purpose processor was shown to exceed 26 MIPS (table 6).

Table 7 provides a preliminary indication of the range of large-scale general-purpose computer systems presently available including processing capability. These particular machines are mentioned because of the clearly indicated need for substantial machine computing resource, as well as the corresponding need for substantial amounts of memory and peripheral storage capability. (A further discussion of table 7 is given in sec. 3.2.2.)

As one can see, the large amount of computer power required far exceeds present capabilities. Indeed this clearly indicates the need to consider functional off-loading and special-purpose hardware alternatives to the use of a single, large-scale, general-purpose computer. This option is investigated in the following section.

3.2.2 Systems Incorporating Special-Purpose Hardware

A Off-loading Principles

Faced with heavy computational loads, the first approach to system design is to identify functions which can be performed "off line" by other special-purpose computer systems without deleteriously affecting the effectiveness of the computations performed. The first choices for such offloading are clearly those EOS functions which are the greatest contributors to the overall processing burden. In particular, the cubic convolution computation outweighs all of the other functions to be performed by the EOS computer. Removing this function to an off-stream processor of some kind will reduce the overall computing requirement by approximately 18 MIPS, under the assumption that the offloading removes 90% of the original computational burden.

TABLE 7
TYPICAL LARGE-SCALE PROCESSORS PRESENTLY AVAILABLE FOR EOS APPLICATION

			<u>MIPS**</u>	<u>MEMORY SIZE (Bytes)</u>
(1)	IBM 360/85	} 8 BIT BYTES	8-12	16-32 K ₂ /4096 K ₂
(2)	IBM 360/195		12-14	32 K ₂ /4096 K ₂
(3)	IBM 370/165, 168		5-10	3072 K ₂
(4)	CDC 7600	} 6 BIT BYTES	10-15*	640 K ₂ /5120 K ₂
(5)	CDC 6600		3-5*	1310 K ₂ /1350 K ₂
(6)	UNIVAC 1110 (DUAL ARITHMETIC UNITS)	} 6 BIT BYTES	5	1572 K ₂ /4288 K ₂

* Using instruction stack optimally.

** Professional judgement based on intrinsic nature of EOS problem.

The potentially applicable offloading computer system architectures which appear to have the appropriate general features to perform this function are the following:

1. The use of a collection of fully microprogrammed medium-scale computers which are optimized to perform the table lookups and simple arithmetic.
2. The use of one or more special-purpose "signal processor" class machine which is hard- or soft-wired to perform the cubic convolution algorithm.
3. The development of special pipeline execution units which are hard-wired to perform the specific computation.
4. The use of some form of distributed computer system which allocates load among available processing units automatically.

(The last alternative is included as a suggestion of a route which could be taken to amassing the 20 MIPS required, but it is less a real possibility than the others because the necessary network control algorithms and required efficiency within such a network are not necessarily within the present state of the art. Reference 2, for example, examines some of the problems with this approach.)

Figure 10 shows the general difference between use of a general-purpose computer and a special-purpose computer system. In the latter case, it is likely that there will be sufficient savings to warrant a much smaller "host" computer. As a result, it will be necessary to review whether it is desirable to offload other functions. Thus, we arrive at the following candidate list for offloading (the other EOS functions not being amenable to this role):

1. The radiometric correction of input data to account for variations in sensor response
2. The computations associated with ground control point correlation

3. The video interpolation of corrected output image pixel values from the input image pixel values

These functions are desirable off-loading candidates for the following reasons:

Radiometric Correction: As we have indicated before, these corrections can probably be performed with a simple table lookup procedure. Because the sensor response variations are only a slowly varying function of position within each TM or HRPI frame, the values in the table must be changed only relatively infrequently compared with the total number of pixels which must be processed.

Ground Control Point (GCP) Correlation: This computation compares a given picture region (ground truth) with the input image as a means to precisely identify the true location of the sensed image of a particular ground feature. Various "hands off" algorithms exist to perform this computation; in addition, the possible necessity for interactive operation of the GCP operation further suggests its possible implementation off-line from the main general-purpose processor activity.

Video Interpolation: As the values of table 6 suggest, this is the most likely candidate for offloading. In addition, the specific algorithms which must be used (see below) are particularly amenable to special-purpose processor implementation since they possess these qualities:

- Regularity of application. (They are applied repetitively to a large number of successive pixels.)
- Simplicity in required addressing patterns. (The algorithms can be organized to operate on input-image data in particularly convenient address patterns as processing of an entire frame proceeds.)

B Candidate Special-Purpose Hardware^{*}

The special-purpose hardware configuration shown in Fig. 10b suggests that candidate special-purpose hardware must meet a number of constraints, among them:

- Capability for full self-operation without undue assistance provided by the host processor (which, presumably, is busy performing other activities).
- The power to access data directly from either primary or secondary storage supplied by the general-purpose processing system. This is necessary in order to minimize the total data movement.
- The capability to implement the candidate off-loadable functions.

Specific architectural alternatives are, therefore, limited to those special-purpose systems which are complete processors, and to those which have the auxiliary functions to support the interactions necessary for the entire computation to "go through" with minimum delay and inter-processor interference.

(1) Architectural Alternatives

Two principal architectural alternatives exist which can meet these criteria and at the same time offer the potential for significant execution time saving by providing for especially efficient implementations. These alternatives are:

1. The use of dynamically microprogrammable off-line processors, accessing from the "host" computer primary or secondary (random access) memory system
2. The use of hardwired processor techniques, in which algorithms are selected beforehand and which, because of the implementation, can be made to operate at circuit logic speeds.

^{*}These alternatives are the same ones considered in an earlier report, Ref. 3.

Certain general advantages and disadvantages exist for each of these alternatives, as discussed below.

(A) **Advantages**

A dynamically microprogrammable architecture has the advantage that algorithm selection is not necessarily permanent. That is, after an efficient implementation is completed and checked out, and after operational experience has been gained with the algorithm and the processor executing it, it remains possible to "back up" and make modifications for further performance enhancement.

The use of hardwired logic, however, offers some appreciable speed advantages. This situation occurs because of the nature of algorithmic processes; that is, a result of the lack of uncertainty in hardwired logic implementations. That same uncertainty (manifest in the form of conditional checking, and all the other trappings of software) works to "slow down" even the best microprogramming implementations.

(B) **Disadvantages**

Hardwired logic has an advantage in speed, but suffers severely in terms of overall flexibility. If the algorithms must be changed this can be accomplished only by complete rewiring of the special-purpose device(s).

The use of a dynamically microprogrammed processor has the disadvantage that a separate software system must be operated. The flexibility such a choice offers may not necessarily be offset by the increased system programming burden frequent (or even infrequent) changes in the software will evoke.

(2) **Candidate Architectures**

Three candidate special-purpose architectures have been selected from a large number of those presently under development within the computing industry. The selection of these systems as candidates implies neither

acceptance of their capabilities for the EOS data processing system nor acquiescence to claims of superior design. Likewise, these architectures are not to be considered as "eliminated" from further consideration.

The three candidates are:

1. The Control Data Corporation "Flexible Processor." This machine, which is currently under advanced development, features a relatively large control store and microprogram word length, particularly convenient input/output facilities, and relatively fast fixed-point-oriented internal processor computational resources. Internal processing is based on a 125-ns clock.
2. The Culler-Harrison, Inc., "AP-120" Signal Processing System. This computer system was developed for a role in signal processing and is specifically oriented to spectral computations involving Fast Fourier Transforms (FFTs). Besides a novel arrangement for partially dynamic microprogram control, this machine has a highly flexible control/data store as well as read-only storage for constants and pre-defined functions. Internal processing is based on a 125-ns clock.
3. The General Dynamics' High Speed Parallel Digital Processing Equipment. This equipment line is aimed at hardwired implementations of digital logic on fixed point values for very high data rates. Use of ECL 10,000 logic permits processing speeds of up to 37×10^6 operands per second. Although the primary orientation of this processor system is toward FFT-related applications, the implementation is potentially capable of use in the aforementioned ERS computational roles.

C Candidate Machine Architectural Details

This section presents some of the salient features of these three candidate special-purpose architectures. Table 8 presents a summary of each architecture and an estimate of system cost.

(1) Control Data Corporation, "Flexible Processor"

The CDC "Flexible Processor" is a fully microprogrammed computer processor which has a highly flexible internal structure which permits its use in a wide variety of applications. Some of the specific characteristics of the main components of this processor are the following:

(A) Microprogram Store

The microprogram store consists of 1024 words, 48 bits per word, 125-ns cycle time. This is referred to as the processor's "Large File." This memory is implemented with Schottky TTL bipolar active element memory, with 256 bits/integrated circuit. Control of the "Large File" is by means of two generalized I/O busses, which can operate in parallel at a rate of one 16-bit word per 125-ns period; the 10-bit address to a word within the Large File is carried on one of these busses.

(B) Register Files

Four other register files are available as a resource to the executing microprogram:

1. The "Scratchpad File," consisting of up to 2048 words of up to 32 bits/word. This memory is also read/write, randomly addressible, and is implemented with bipolar TTL logic with a cycle time of 125 ns.
2. The "Small File," consisting of 16 words, 32 bits/word, 125 ns cycle time for simultaneous read and write (to different words).

TABLE 8
SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS OF SPECIAL-PURPOSE HARDWARE

Machine	(1) CDC "Flexible Processor"	(2) CH1 AP-120 Signal Processor	(3) General Dynamics High Speed D.F.
Architectural Type	Microprogrammable	Microprogrammable	Pipeline Processor
Basic Cycle Time	125 ns	125 ns	27 ns (ECL 10,000 Logic)
Memory System			
Control Store	1024 × 48 b @ 125 ns	1024 × 32 b @ 125 ns	—
Register Store	≈8000 × 8 b capacity	≈6000 × 32 b capacity	—
Word Width	16 b	16/32 b	16
Processor Speeds			
Fixed Add	125 ns	125 ns	27 ns
Fixed Multiply	250 ns	350 ns	27 ns*
Floating Add	{ Software Implementation }	500 ns	
Floating Multiply		625 ns	
Input/Output	(a) circular buffer of 16 × 32 b @ 125 ns (b) 32 b direct output (c) 4 JO ports	Two 32 b @ 125 ns buses	Buffer unit available
Cost ("typical system")	≈\$30K**	\$60K	\$Not available†
Availability			
First Prototype Installed	1972	3rd quarter, 1973	1972
Delivery	Negotiable; ≈12 mos	4-6 mos	18-24 mos†

* Assumes saturated pipeline.

** Full configuration, in large quantities.

† Highly dependent on configuration.

3. The "Input File," consisting of 16 words, 32 bits/word, 125-ns cycle time. This file has associated with it a 4-bit counter which can be used as a circular pointer within the input file.
4. The "Output File," consisting of 1 word, 32 bits/word, 125-ns cycle time. This "file" can be used for output of results simultaneously with computations and with input. For each of these files, both address and control information (whichever is appropriate) is transferred by means of the two data busses.

(C) Processor Facilities

Some of the specific features of the processor are the following:

1. 8-bit by 8-bit multiply, implemented on one printed circuit card with hardwired static logic, operating in a total period of 250 ns.
2. 16-bit by 16-bit adder, expandable to a 32-bit by 32-bit adder, which operates in a total cycle time of 125 ns in either case.
3. 16 levels of interrupt, including appropriate masking capabilities.
4. 5 condition registers, each 16 bits in length, with parallel masking registers of the same length. These registers are used to store the outcomes of previously completed operations, and, under mask control, can be used to alter the flow of microprogram control.
5. A 16-word 32-bits/word instruction pushdown stack. This stack can be used to implement very fast subroutine calling within the microprogram, or can be used to support recursive invocation of microprogram subroutines.

5. A flexible shift matrix, including 1-to-8-bit and full-byte multiple shifts and exchanges of operands. This shift matrix width is the same as the width of the adder selected for the processor. [See (2) above]
7. Four independent "input/output" ports which operate in a manner similar to that for a channel. These ports can be connected to other flexible processors or to a large memory external to the microprocessor (e.g., the implemented processor's main memory).
8. The processor requires approximately 10 vertical inches in a standard 19-inch rack mounting system. Each four-layer printed circuit board measures 7.5 by 10.0 in.

(2) Culler-Harrison, Inc., AP-120 Signal Processor System

The Culler-Harrison, Inc., AP-120 Signal Processor System is a fully microprogrammable processor with unique features and capabilities, particularly in regard to internal processing speeds for floating point arithmetic. Some of the features of this system are the following:

(A) Microprogram Memory

The basic microprogram memory (writable control storage) consists of 1024 words, 32 bits/word, 125-ns cycle time; 512 words of this memory is hardwired, and the remaining 512 words is dynamically changeable (see below). The microprogram control is of the "horizontal" type.

(B) Registers

Various kinds of machine accessible registers are provided, as follow :

1. There are 16 index registers, 16 bits/word. These registers are used to store microprogram base and relocation constants as well as microprogram index values.

2. There are 16 "scratch pad" general registers, 32 bits/register. These registers are used to contain intermediate floating point or fixed point computation values.
3. There are 4096 words, 32 bits/word of MOS (Metal Oxide Semiconductor) random access memory. This space is used as a dynamic swap area for segments of microcode used in the main microprogram memory and, in addition, can be used for data storage.
4. There are 2048 words of 32-bit, hardwired read-only memory which are used to store various constants specific to the processor application. For example, the constants used in fast implementation (by table lookup and interpolation) of standard arithmetic functions (sin, cos, etc.) are stored in this region.

(C) Processor Facilities

The microprogrammable processor provides for both fixed point and floating point format arithmetic. The floating point format employs a 24-bit fraction and an 8-bit exponent. The properties of the various functional units are the following:

Fixed Multiply. A 16 bit by 16 bit fixed point multiply can be completed in three internal clock periods, or 375 ns. A 32-bit result is produced.

Floating Multiply. A fully general 32 bit by 32 bit floating point multiply operation can be completed in five internal clock periods, or 625 ns. This time includes the time for operand renormalization.

Fixed Add. A 16 bit by 1 bit fixed add operation can be completed in two internal clock periods.

Floating Add. A general 32 bit by 32 bit floating point add operation is completed in a total of four clock periods, or 500 ns.

Shift Matrix. The shift matrix can operate on 16-bit quantities, and can complete shifts of from 1 bit to 16 bits in one clock period (125 ns) each.

For all of these functional units it is important to appreciate that the overall execution time quoted is for the delay before which another operation of the same kind can be begun. Thus, overlap of all of these units is possible and highly parallel operation can result.

(D) I/O Facilities

Input/output between the microprogrammable processor and its "host" machine is performed on one of two data buss systems: the I/O buss or the "host" buss. Each buss is 32 bits wide and can process a complete 32-bit operand once each 125 ns. Associated with the buss capabilities is a 32-bit accumulator which is also addressable from within the micro-programmed processor.

(3) General Dynamics High-Speed Digital Processing Equipment

The General Dynamics High Speed Digital Processing Equipment consists of a specially tailored pipeline processor, each pipeline stage of which can perform certain elementary operations on operands passed to it from its predecessor. In turn, each pipeline stage can deliver operands to the successor pipeline stage. The initial and terminal pipeline stages are used to accept input operands and disgorge output operands; input and output operand streams are assumed to originate from a "host" processor which has appropriate input/output data rates.

General Dynamics current implementation technology permits each pipeline stage to be as short as 27 ns, for an overall computation rate of 37×10^6 operations per second. For these operational speeds ECL 10,000 logic is required; slower speed Schottky TTL-type logic permits stage times on the order of 50 ns.

Each special purpose pipeline processor must be specifically designed for its ultimate operational function. Individual stages are constructed with standard subcomponents, and individually programmed; the program is expressed as a collection of permanent wiring performed under computer control by automatic wire-wrap equipment. A single processing stage (i.e., a single pipeline stage) can consist of one or more "boards"; the number of boards is dependent on the complexity of the particular processing function.

(A) Standard Pipeline Components

The General Dynamics development group has completed design of certain relatively standard functional stages, among them:

Adder Stage. The adder stage accepts two 16-bit fixed point operands in bit-parallel at each 27-ns (ECL 10,000 logic) interval; the 17-bit sum is delivered to the output register after a pipeline stage delay of 27 ns.

Multiplier Stage. The multiplier stage accepts two 16-bit fixed point operands each 27-ns system period. The total delay through the multiplier stage is 10 system periods, or 270 ns, in the case of ECL 10,000 logic.

Divider Stage. The divider stage accepts two 16-bit fixed point operands once each 27 ns (ECL 10,000 implementation); the total delay for this stage is on the order of 350 ns. No exception processing (such as for a zero divisor, is performed in current implementations although GDD has indicated that such exception processing could be performed).

(B) Pipeline Organization

There is no limit to the length of the processing chain, since each stage's operation is synchronized to arrival of data on its input registers. The overall pipeline throughput is a function of the smallest of the individual pipeline stages' operand acceptance rates. Thus, for

example, a pipeline constructed of adders, multipliers, and dividers such as those described above can operate on a new operand pair at the 37-MHz rate indicated previously.

(C) Special-Purpose Pipeline Stages

For the EOS application, special purpose pipeline stages would have to be designed, checked out, and physically implemented. At the present time (and with present information on the GD system) it is not possible to specify the exact nature of such designs.

D Implementation Estimates

In this section we provide preliminary characterizations of the manner in which each of the three special purpose processors just described might be used in an off-loading role for EOS all-digital-image processing. In each case we make certain operational assumptions which allow concentration on the primary issue--estimation of overall processing time saved; subsequent studies should address the validity of these assumptions in substantially greater detail. Specifically, we assume the following:

1. We assume that the special-purpose processor is supported by the "host" machine, a general-purpose processor, via its existing input/output structures. For example, this may occur via a "selector" channel or channels in such a way that data is streamed to and from the off-line processor at very high rates.
2. We assume that the "host" machine processor participation in the control activities necessary to support the off-line operation requires at most 10% of the originally estimated processing load. Very likely, the actual figure would be considerably below this, particularly if optimum use is made of concurrent operation of host machine channels and processor. The figure of 10% is in keeping with our earlier mentioned threshold for efficacy of off-loading.

3. We assume that the host machine has sufficient primary and secondary memory resources to support enqueueing of relatively large amounts of "to be completed" all-digital image processing. This assumption is necessary because the efficiency attained by the special-purpose gear is highly dependent on the availability of data on a nearly continuous basis; in other words, we are assuming that it is possible to "keep the special purpose hardware busy" a substantial portion of the available processing time.

(1) Radiometric Correction

As mentioned earlier, the radiometric correction task can be assumed to operate on a table lookup basis since the correction table changes only slowly as a function of the position within the frame being processed. Implemented on a special purpose processor, this function requires two major steps:

1. Periodic update of the "translation table" which specifies the radiometric corrections
2. Streaming of the pixels to which the particular translation is to be applied through the special purpose processor

Because of the relatively slow rate of table update, this function can be assumed to be performed within the usual 10% "overhead" allowance. We can now estimate the processing time for data streaming operations on each of the candidate special-purpose architectures.

CDC Flexible Processor. Input and output of pixels can proceed at machine cycle rates--on the order of 8×10^6 pixels/s. Application of the (current) radiometric translation requires use of the pixel value as an index into the translation table, and placement of the indexed value on the output register; this operation can be performed in one machine cycle of 125 ns. Because input/output and internal processing can be performed concurrently, each pixel is processed at the rate of 8×10^6 pixels/s.

CHI, AP-120 Signal Processor. This processor has two input/output busses which can operate concurrently with the microprogrammable processor. Hence, the computation can be organized in a manner similar to that for the CDC Flexible Processor, and can achieve the same rate: radiometric correction at 8×10^6 pixels/s.

GD High-Speed Digital Processing Equipment. In this special-purpose architecture it is possible to construct a special-purpose pipeline "stage" which stores the current value of the translation table in a 64×6 bit array; loading of this array to maintain currency of the translation table can be accomplished in a manner similar to that used to load constants into circular memories in the GD FFT implementations. If ECL 10,000 logic is employed, each pixel can be translated at a rate of 27 ns per pixel, or for a total rate of 37×10^6 pixels/s.

(2) Ground Control Point Correlation

The ground control point (GCP) correlation computation can be characterized as consisting of an iterative series of sub-frame difference computations. A variety of techniques can be applied to the control of the selection of the "next point" within the search region, given the outcome of the correlation computation performed for the "previous point." The suboptimal estimation algorithm used in ref. 3 is descriptive of the number of iterations likely to be required.

Implementation of the GCP correlation computation on special-purpose gear can take advantage of the fact that each iterative step involves essentially the same computations to be performed--only the reference point (which governs the pixel addressing) varies. One can suppose that there are two streams of data: (1) the reference point-based region within the search region, and (2) the ground truth information. The special purpose processor must compute the sum of the differences between each pixel pair.

CDC Flexible Processor. The circular input file within the CDC Flexible Processor can be used to accept data at a total rate of 250 ns per pixel pair (two streams). The single subtraction (the difference between the pixel pair values) and the accumulation of the sum of the magnitude of the differences can be accomplished with three microinstruction executions. This sets the rate to one computation per three 125-ns cycles or 375 ns. Accumulation of the output is included in this processing time allowance (there are sufficient registers to contain this value). The stream rate is, therefore, 2.67×10^6 pixels/s.

CHI AP-120 Signal Processor. This processor can also support two input pixel streams, at a rate of 250 ns/pixel pair. As with the CDC machine, the absolute difference and summation operations can be accomplished with three instructions per pixel pair; however, these can be overlapped at a rate of one initiation of the fixed add unit per machine cycle. The resulting computation is input/output limited (in the large), at a rate of 250 ns/pixel pair. The stream rate is, therefore, 4×10^6 pixels/s.

GD High-Speed Digital Processing Equipment. For use of this special processor option in the GCP correlation computation a two-stage pipeline could be employed. The first stage would form the absolute difference between the two input pixels, and the second stage would accumulate the sum of the differences (the absolute correlation). Each stage could operate (with ECL 10,000 logic) at a rate of a new operand each 27 ns; the total throughput rate would therefore be 37×10^6 pixel pairs/s.

(3) Video Interpolation

There are two primary means for performing the video interpolation: (1) the use of the "nearest neighbor" approximation, and (2) the use of cubic convolution. The latter is on the order of 20 times more resource consumptive than the former, and as a result it is suggested that algorithms

for performing this computation should be the subject of substantial further investigation. In either case, it can be assumed that the frame to which the correction transformation is to be performed is "gridded" into small regions within which no output pixel is shifted more than one pixel width. The identification of these grid regions is clearly performed best in the general purpose host computer. We treat the two primary algorithms for video interpolation separately.

(A) Nearest Neighbor Algorithm

This algorithm requires the identification of which pixel in a 4-pixel grid is nearest to an interpolant point located within the 4-pixel region. In effect, there are six data streams, as follows:

1-4. The values of pixels at the four corners of the interpolation region

5-6. The two coordinates of the interpolation point

It can be assumed that the coordinate pairs of the interpolant point are given in floating point format; in this case, the nearest neighbor computation can be considered as performed in the following fashion:

Step 1: Add $0.5 \times (\text{distance between pixels})$ to each coordinate

Step 2: Convert each value to an integer

Step 3: Use resulting pair as selection address for nearest neighbor. The possible pairs are (0,0), (0,1), (1,0), and (1,1)

Step 4: Transmit selected output pixel

CDC Flexible Processor. Good use of the facilities provided by this machine suggest the following limiting factors: (1) the maximum input/output rate is on the order of one pixel selection each 750 ns, and (2) the processing time for each pixel is on the order of less than 750 ns per pixel selection. Thus, for this special purpose processor the computation appears to be I/O limited at a rate of 1.34×10^6 pixels/s.

CHI AP-120 Signal Processor. This special purpose processor has slightly less I/O capability than the CDC machine, and the slightly greater processing power does not compensate. It is estimated that the CHI AP-120 signal processor can perform the nearest neighbor computation at a rate of 1.0×10^6 pixels/s.

(B) Cubic Convolution Algorithm

The cubic convolution algorithm, described briefly in sec. 3.2.1, requires the presence of four tables which store predetermined values from which the interpolant contributions for four pixels are derived. It is estimated that each such table will require from 1024 to 4095 (i.e., between 2^{10} and 2^{12}) entries; the total storage requirement is, therefore, between 4096 and 16384 cells. This storage requirement is important because it eliminates one, and possibly two, of the alternative special-purpose hardware systems under investigation.

GD High-Speed Digital Processing Equipment. This implementation appears to be eliminated from consideration for the cubic convolution algorithm since it does not appear feasible to provide dynamically changeable memory within the processor pipeline which has enough capacity to store the four interpolation tables.

CDC Flexible Processor. If the table sizes can be kept small enough to fit within the available 8000 byte capacity of this machine, then it is evident that the 1024 words of microprogram store would be more than enough to implement the cubic convolution algorithm. The overall processing rate would be set by the rate at which data can be moved through the machine and, since the cubic convolution algorithm requires only the sequential arrival of pixel values, the processor can operate at full rate. This rate is, therefore, set by the processor itself. The 38 instruction executions per pixel will require 4.75 μ s. If the tables cannot be made to fit, it is important to note, then this alternative must be eliminated. The rate will be 0.21×10^6 pixels/s.

CHI, AP-120 Signal Processor. The tables required for the cubic convolution algorithm would easily fit into the 24,000 bytes (6000 words at 4 bytes per word) available on the AP-120. Again, the process would be instruction count limited, with an effective overall rate of 4.75 μ s per pixel. The rate will be 0.21×10^6 pixels/s.

(4) Summary of Implementation Estimates

Table 9 summarizes the achievable processing rates for the three candidate special-purpose computer systems. There is only one further step necessary to validate the applicability of these systems: assuring that there is sufficient processing time available to support these special-purpose machines.

It may be recalled that at least 123 s of elapsed time is available for the EOS computer complex to process each input frame (this figure was based on a total of 468 equivalent input HR 1 frames per 16-hr processing day). The slowest throughput for any of the special-purpose alternatives is 0.21×10^6 pixels/s (i.e., cubic convolution function); hence, the longest any of the alternatives can take to process a single frame is approximately 430 s, which is slightly under four times the length of the available processing window. This indicates that at least four parallel special-purpose processors will very likely be required for the worst case: cubic convolution interpolation. One can conclude, therefore, that the alternatives analyzed in the foregoing are viable, with the proviso already indicated in regard to maintenance of inter-processor control, so long as special-purpose hardware is used in a quadruple configuration for (at least) the cubic convolution computation.

3.2.3 Input/Output (I/O) Units

A Introduction

This section is concerned with the development of an efficient and cost-effective I/O configuration for the central IPS facility. As noted before, the overall central IPS can be thought of as consisting of three major components--the preprocessor, processor, and postprocessor. Specifically this section focuses on the preprocessor and postprocessor.

TABLE 9
SUMMARY OF ESTIMATE EXECUTION RATES FOR OFF-LOADED EOS FUNCTIONS
(pixels/second)

Function	CDC Flexible Processor	CHI, AP-120 Signal Processor	General Dynamics High-Speed DPE
1. Radiometric Correction	8×10^6	8×10^6	37×10^6
2. GCP Correlation	2.67×10^6	4×10^6	37×10^6
3. Video Interpolation:			
• Nearest Neighbor Interpolation	1.34×10^6	1.0×10^6	37×10^6
• Cubic Convolution	0.21×10^6	0.21×10^6	Not applicable

In addition, consideration is given to the devices used to record the raw video data from the satellite at the receiving stations. Since these video tapes must be compatible with the playback equipment at the IPS, selection of recorders must be optimal with respect to both sites.

In addition, consideration is given to the recording devices used to record the raw video data from the satellite at the receiving stations. Since these video tapes must be compatible with the playback equipment at the IPS, optimum selection of recorders must be done considering both sites.

In arriving at a recommended configuration, future growth of the system to meet possible increased future user demand was considered. In this regard a concept involving on-line archival product generation combined with off-line user product generation modules was considered.

The following sections address in turn the receiving station and preprocessor configuration, the postprocessor configuration including archival formatting, available equipment, and a summary of the recommended configuration.

B Receiving Station and Preprocessor

Only the receiving facilities' digital recording devices were considered within the scope of this study. With regard to the digital recording devices used, the EOS spacecraft will transmit two multiplexed 120 Mb/s signals (one from each sensor) to the receiving station, yielding a total information transfer rate of 240 Mb/s. This signal could then be recorded at the receiving station either at the 240 Mb/s rate by one recorder or demultiplexed and then recorded at 120 Mb/s by two recorders.

In choosing between these alternatives on a purely economic basis, an approach using two 120 Mb/s recorders appears preferable. Though no firm figures are yet available, on the basis of information we have obtained, it appears that the cost of a 240 Mb/s machine is far more than twice that of a 120 Mb/s machine (see Appendix A). Furthermore, even if we assume that future technology can reduce the cost of a 240 Mb/s machine to only twice that of a 120 Mb/s machine (or perhaps even somewhat less than twice), there remains a requirement for a spare machine at a receiving station which we feel NASA should strongly insist upon. In this case, the 240 Mb/s machine would have to be the spare for a similar 240 Mb/s machine, whereas a configuration using two 120 Mb/s machines would require only one additional 120 Mb/s machine as a spare, representing a considerable cost saving.

A second consideration is compatibility with the processor input recorder. Aside from this obvious requirement is the fact that the processor input data rate is likely to be limited to the range of 7 Mb/s (sec. 3.2.1); thus whatever machines and recording format are used they will need to be capable of a speed (or data rate) reduction of approximately 20 to 1 (for a 120 Mb/s signal). Given the present state of technology, this almost certainly requires the use of multitrack linear recorders. Quad head and helical scan machines cannot at present achieve the high data rates required (120 Mb/s or 240 Mb/s) because they are one-channel machines and, with present high-density codes limited to 30 kb/in./track, enormously high head-to-tape speeds would be required; moreover, even if these high speeds could be achieved, the corresponding speed reductions required would be extremely difficult because of the requirement to maintain a precise ratio between linear tape speed and head rotational speed.

Accepting, therefore, the need for a multitrack linear recorder, note that one difference between a 120 and a 240 Mb/s recorder would be that the latter would have twice the number of tracks. Now, since the

processor can handle only one sensor's data at a time, only half the tracks on a 240 Mb/s recorder would be in use during each processing cycle, so there is no advantage in requiring the preprocessor recorder to be able to accommodate and slow down a 240 Mb/s tape. Again, the cost of such a device would be far in excess of that for one capable of handling the format required for a 120 Mb/s recorder.

In summary, then, we believe that all receiving stations should be equipped with two 120 Mb/s recorders and one 120 Mb/s recorder as a spare.

The preprocessing stage of a facility is meant to include only the input recorder to the processor and its controller. Again, the requirements on this recorder are that it be capable of playing the tapes recorded by the receiving facility; and since the maximum I/O rate of the processor is likely to be in the range of 7 Mb/s (sec. 3.2.1) and the tapes will have been recorded at 120 Mb/s, the input recorder must have a 20:1 slowdown capability.

The recorder used here should be of the type used in the receiving station. Since, however, the transfer rate into the processor is limited to 7 Mb/s, it need not have the capability of recording or playing back at 120 Mb/s. Instead, as is common practice with multichannel linear recorders, it should have the same transport and head configuration, but with the electronics and, if such an option is available, the tape speed required for 7 Mb/s playback.

C Postprocessor

The postprocessing section includes all I/O equipment after the processor.

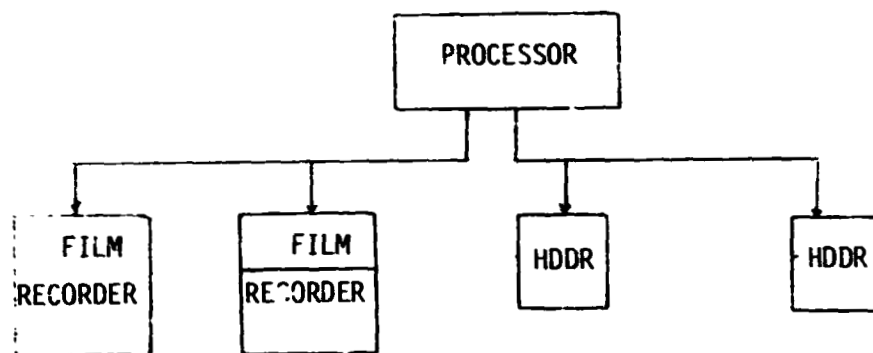
The requirements on the postprocessing equipment are dictated by the products requirements as given in sec. 2.4. Briefly, these requirements are:

- (a) Two copies of all processed (2.7×10^{11} bits) data on high-density digital tape for archival storage
- (b) Two copies of one band of each scene on 9.5-in. film
- (c) 20% of all data (5.4×10^{10} bits) is to be recorded on high-density digital tape for shipment to users on request
- (d) Up to 50% (1.35×10^{11} bits) of all data would be processed onto film for user requests
- (e) 10% of the basic scene load (2.7×10^{10} bits) would be recorded on computer-compatible tape for shipment to small users
- (f) Growth capability

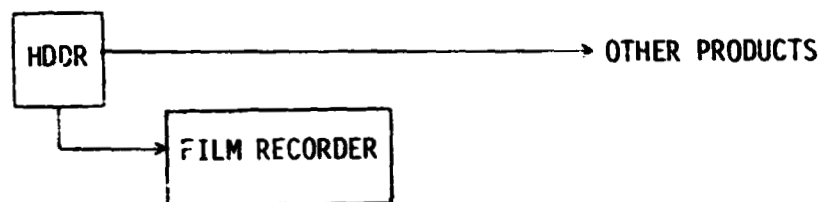
Growth capability has been emphasized as a requirement, particularly for user products. NASA's ERTS-1 experience showed some difficulty in meeting user demand as more applications of the information became known. For this reason system designs considered here do not require on-line production of user products. Instead these are produced off-line in modules that allow for increased demand by simply adding additional modules to the system. We feel this modularity approach allows the necessary flexibility in meeting future user demands.

The first consideration is what products, if any, should be produced on line (that is directly from the computer) and what products should be produced off line from the master archival digital tape.

Since two copies of high-density digital tape (HDDT) are required of all data along with two copies of one frame of each scene, one obvious configuration is that shown in fig. 11a for the on-line system. The remaining products would be produced off line (fig. 11b).



(a) ON LINE



(b) OFF LINE

Figure 11. Candidate Postprocessor System A

For the on-line system, since real time data is obtained, the film recorders and HDDRs must be dedicated to the processor for as long a time as is required to process the daily load. This is likely to be the full 16 hours per day—and in any case no less than 10 hours, since the maximum data transfer rate is bound by the processor I/O rate of approximately 7 Mb/s (see fig. 12). Thus the film recorders and HDDRs of the on-line system are effectively prevented from contributing in any way to the total off-line production capacity.

Another factor is that the maximum processor I/O rate of 7 Mb/s is at least an order of magnitude slower than the transfer rates on available film and magnetic tape recorders. In order to fully utilize the capabilities of present recording devices, the on-line/off-line configurations as shown in figs. 13a and 13b are proposed.

With these configurations all the data is first recorded on a master HDDT. This tape is then taken to an off-line facility where the speed up capabilities of a tape recorder can be used to record a second HDDT and the required copies of the film images; then the remaining requested images and tapes can be made. Since this system requires two less film recorders, this is obviously a desirable alternative if it can satisfy the product requirements.

Candidate System A (fig. 11)

The product requirements and their bit loads are:

A	Two copies HDDR	2.7×10^{11} bits/copy
B	Two copies on film 1 band each scene	3.8×10^{10} bits/copy
C	20% of all data HDDT	5.4×10^{10} bits
D	50% of all data on film	1.35×10^{11} bits
E	10% of all data on CCT	2.7×10^{10} bits

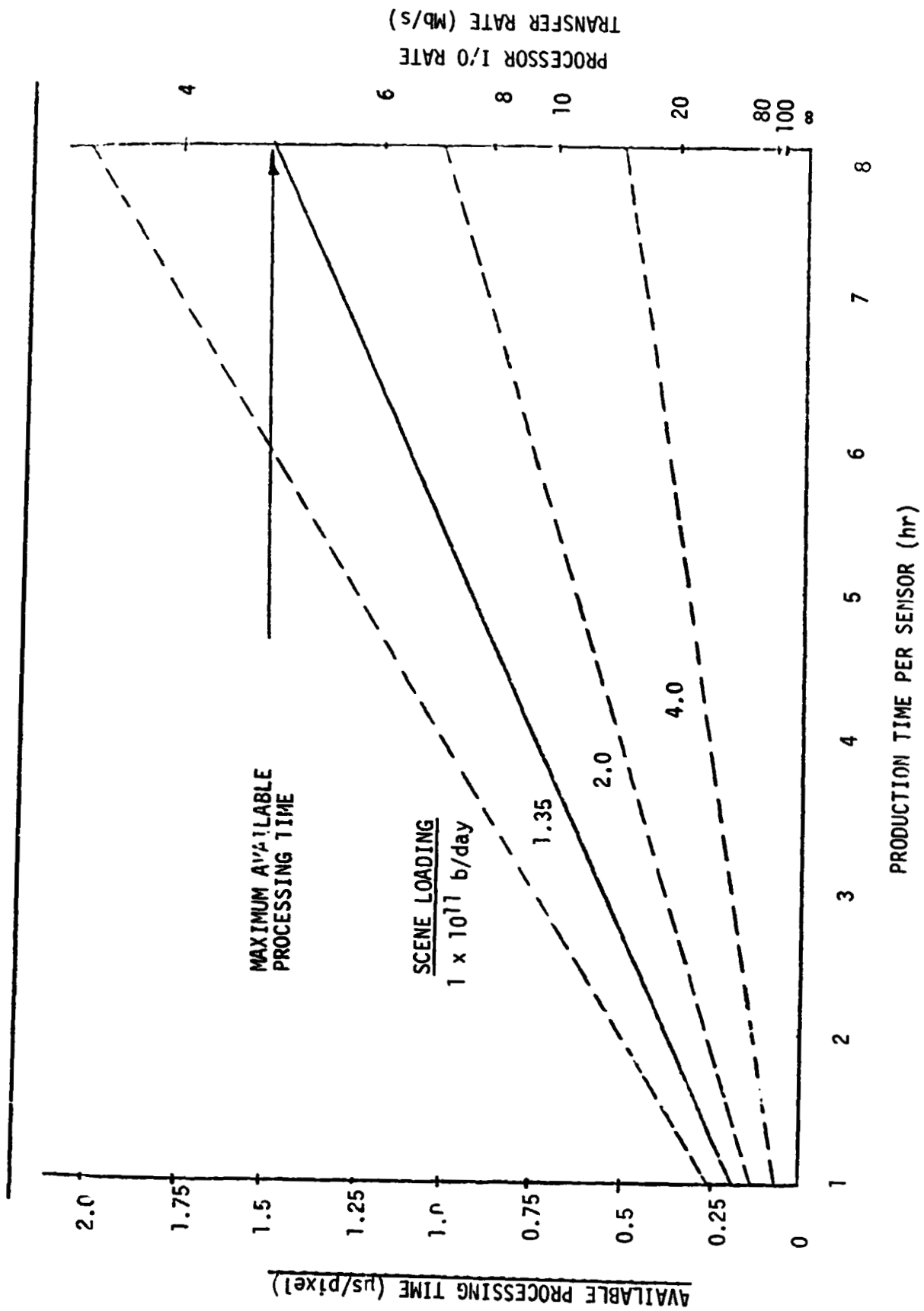
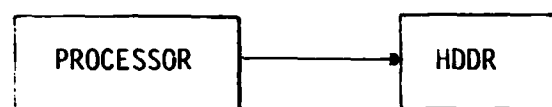
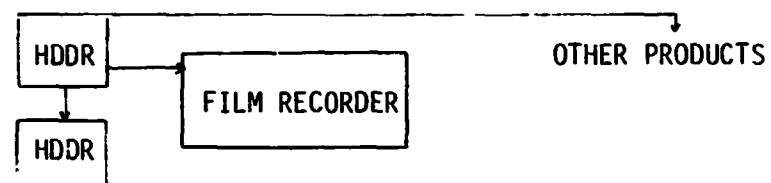


Figure 12. Image Processor System: Processor-I/O Interaction



(a) ON LINE



(b) OFF LINE

Figure 13. Candidate Postprocessor System B

Requirements A and B are satisfied on line, and it is reasonable to assume that these require full utilization of the on-line equipment 16 hours a day. Note that the transfer of the total data load, $2.7 \cdot 10^{11}$ bits, at a transfer rate of 7.1 Mb/s (the maximum computer transfer rate we will assume) requires 10.5 hours. Utilizing the full 16 hours at this transfer rate permits the transfer of 4.08×10^{11} bits, or 2.0 times the basic daily load of $2 \cdot 10^{11}$ bits from the satellite. (However, this does not take into account the time required to mount the tapes, check out the processor, etc., all of which could require a considerable amount of time.) This would allow processing all the basic scene data using both cubic convolution and nearest neighbor interpolation with only 0.5 MIPS additional processor burden imposed. It will be recalled that the present requirement calls for 30% of the basic data processed with nearest neighbor interpolation and 100% cubic convolution (sec. 2.3.1C).

This leaves requirements C, D, and E. The time required to satisfy these is determined by the information transfer rate from the archival digital tape onto the required medium. Consider first computer-compatible tape since this represents the slowest transfer rate of any of the products. Standard computer tapes use packing densities of 800, 1600, or 6250 bytes per inch. Since 6250 BPI is not yet in wide use, it is advisable to consider only the lower speed ranges. The maximum transfer rates available for 1600 BPI is 1.6 Mb/s for (8-bit bytes) or 0.8 Mb/s at 800 BPI. Figure 14 illustrates the time problems of transferring data at this rate. NASA anticipates sending 10% of the daily load or 2.7×10^{10} bits of data to users on computer tape. This will require 4.18 hours at a minimum to prepare approximately 73 reels of computer tape (at 2400 ft per reel). At 800 BPI, 9.37 hours will be required and 146 reels of tape. If these are not firm requirements, see the discussion later in this section for possible alternatives to CCT.

The time required to transfer data to produce the films is a function of both the maximum transfer rate and the formatting of the archival HDDT (either band sequential or pixel interleaved).

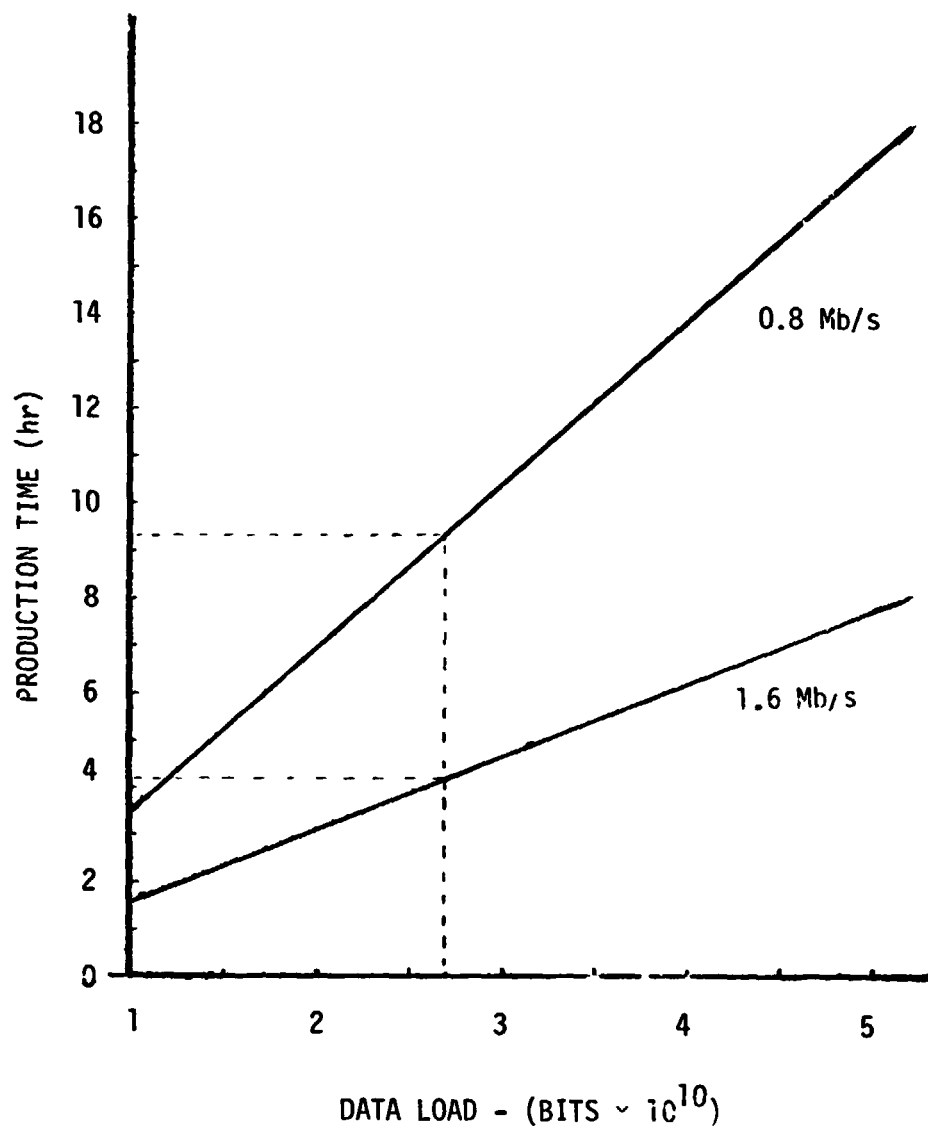


Figure 14. CCT Production Time

If pixel interleaved is used [see (D) below for reasons for selecting it], producing a single frame requires playing through an entire scene; therefore, to obtain an estimate of the maximum time required to transfer the data onto film, the time required to transfer the appropriate number of frames must be multiplied by 7 (the maximum number of frames per scene for the thematic mapper).

For meeting the film output requirements, EBRs have not been considered since a 9.5-in. format cannot be achieved with any present EBR system, and in light of the vacuum requirements on EBRs such a format would not be practical. The transfer rate of LBRs is well in excess of 100 Mb/s, and for all practical purposes, the limiting factor is the tape transfer rate. What maximum tape transfer rates will be available in the 1978 time frame is open to question; however, it is reasonable and convenient to assume a maximum of 120 Mb/s, thus using the same recorder for archival storage that is used in the receiving station and preprocessor. This would seem a desirable situation from both economic and reliability standpoints: the unit cost of each of the 120-Mb/s recorder will decrease the greater the quantity ordered, and a minimum number of spare parts will be required.

Assuming a 120 Mb/s transfer rate and a total of 1.35×10^{11} bits to be transferred, the total transfer time (including a factor of 7 for pixel interleaving) is 2.2 hours.

For calculation of the time required to produce the HDDT, assume a worst case situation where all users want band-interleaved data. The maximum transfer rate will depend on the device used for producing the HDDT for shipment to users. For production of user high-density tapes as opposed to archival high-density tapes--a primary consideration is the cost to the user for purchase of an appropriate playback device. These devices are fully considered in Appendix A, but for purposes of determining production capabilities, the slowest transfer rate of any of

the devices under consideration will be used. This rate is 7.1 Mb/s (which approximately corresponds to the maximum I/O rate of most computers).

Under these circumstances, note that it is not necessary to include a factor of 7 in the time calculation. In extracting the data for a single band in a pixel-interleaved format, it is necessary only to block 6 of the 7 bits output from the tape. Given this blocking device, the archival tape can be played into it at a rate of 49.7 Mb/s (7×7.1) while the output will be only 7.1 Mb/s of data into the recorder. Thus the total time required for transfer is 5.4×10^{10} b / 7.1×10^6 b/s, or 2.1 hours.

Note that in case of a 120 Mb/s transfer rate since the LBR is able to match the maximum transfer rate of the tape recorder, this factor of 7 must be included.

Thus, satisfying the total product requirement takes approximately 13.6 hours, leaving approximately 2.4 hours available for any growth potential. Note: These figures are very rough; they do not take into account time required to search for data or change tapes, etc.; note, however, that all calculations have been for the worst case, which would tend to offset the overhead somewhat.

Candidate System B (fig. 13)

Since all production is off line, the times required would be as follows:

- (a) A second archival tape would be produced at a maximum data rate of 120 Mb/s, requiring approximately 38 min. Note that both recorders would then be free for the production of additional products.
- (b) Using one recorder and 1 LBR, the time required to produce two copies of one band of each scene is approximately 8.75 hours.

- (c) Production of user HDDT, CCT, and user film requests would as for system A require 13.6 hours on one machine. Thus, out of a total of 32 machine-hours per day of production time available, 23.65 machine-hours ($13.6 + 8.75 + 0.65 + 0.65$) are used, leaving 8.35 hours of free machine time.

Thus system B, which uses three tape recorders and only one LBR, is a clear choice over system A, which uses three tape recorders and three LBRs. In general, maximum utilization of I/O devices is achieved when they are used off line to allow the highest data transfer rates.

Other considerations affecting transfer capabilities might be the use of two LBRs in system B as opposed to one. This would provide an additional 4.4 hours of production time at the cost of one LBR. This is an alternative to be considered if additional production time is needed.

Perhaps the greatest increase in available production time can be had by the elimination of computer-compatible tapes. As shown at 800 BPI, nearly 10 hours of time are required to reproduce only 10% of the data. As an alternative, we feel an encoding/decoding device such as the Lockheed HD-103 should be used. This permits the encoding of a serial bit stream into a stream of parallel high-density tracks on a standard instrumentation recorder. Using the Lockheed device as an example and a high-quality 7-track instrumentation recorder, transfer rates of 20 Mb/s could easily be achieved with an enormous reduction in reproduction time from nearly 10 hours to less than 1, thereby greatly increasing the capacity of the reproduction system. A full description of such devices available for this application is found in Appendix A.

D Archival Formatting

Another factor affecting the production time lines is the formatting scheme used on the archival tapes. Data can either be stored in pixel-interleaved or band-sequential format. The strongest case for band-

sequential storage is that the largest part of the user-required data is the film (63%), and the production of films by the LBRs is facilitated if the data is in band-sequential format. (Since we are currently considering monochrome reproductions, in a band-sequential format, only that portion of the tape containing the band of interest is fed into the LBR at the maximum transfer rate available. If the data is in pixel-interleaved format, however, the entire scene, 7 frames, must be played back with the extra information blocked out.)

However, there are several strong arguments against the band-sequential format. The prime one is that some users interested in multispectral analysis might want data in a pixel-interleaved format, which means provisions must be made for reformatting. Going from pixel-interleaved to band-sequential is relatively simple, if time-consuming, but the reverse is not the case. Going from band-sequential to pixel-interleaved requires a device with enough memory to store an entire scene and then rearrange the bit stream. Since one scene contains approximately 2×10^9 bits, either the central processor will have to be used, or if it is not available (as will likely be the case), much storage (multiple disk packs) and a special processing unit will be required and would be costly.

Another consideration is that, as users become more sophisticated, the requirements for pixel-interleaved data will increase, as these users will be developing optical coding and sorting techniques. Moreover, the speed advantage of the band-sequential format will become less when the overhead times involved in loading and searching the tapes are factored in. And again, as users become more sophisticated, the trend is likely to be a call for fewer actual images and increased usage of digital tapes for individual special processing.

For these reasons, we believe that archival data should be stored in a pixel-interleaved format.

3.2.4 Summary of Recommended System Configuration

Figure 15 and table 10 summarize our recommended configuration. The following two sections review the processor and I/O units separately.

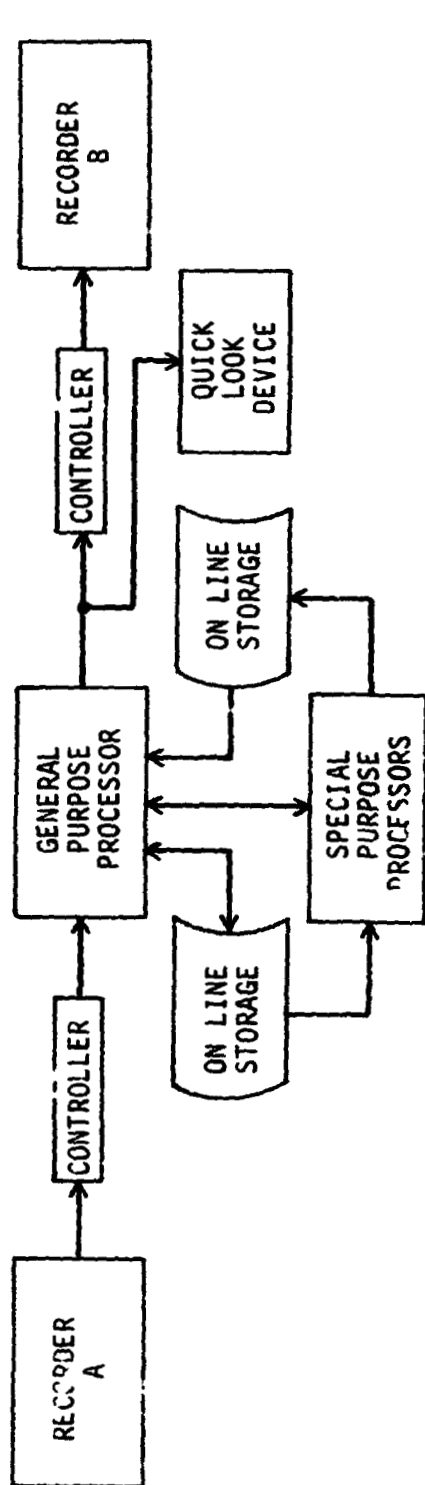
Processor Configuration Summary

Our investigation indicates that processor configurations employing a single, large-scale, general-purpose computing system exclusively will not handle the required computational loads.* The possibility of off-loading functions that are performed in parallel by other special-purpose hardware must be considered in planning for the central facility.

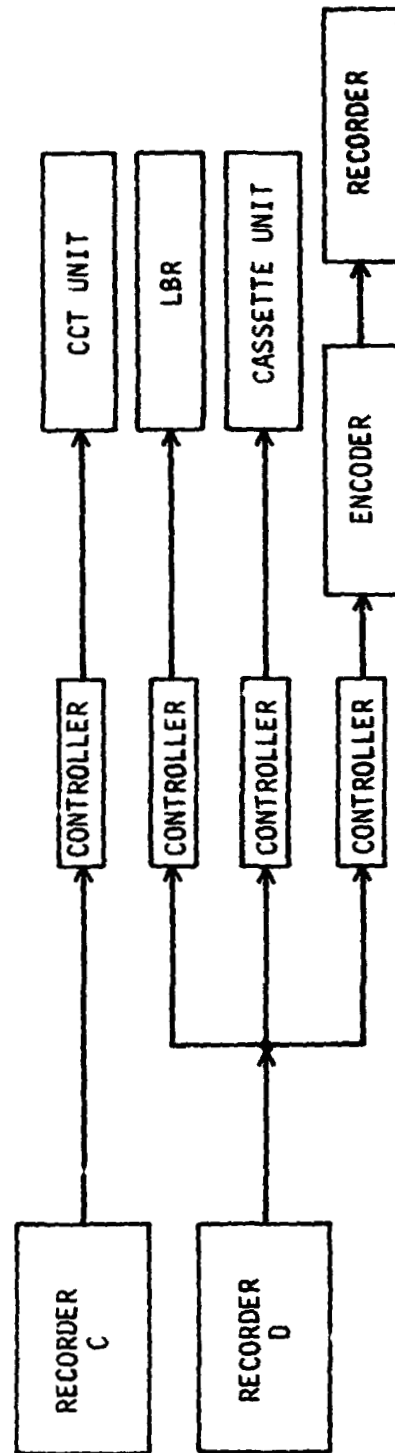
Off-loading such functions as radiometric correction, ground control point correlation, and cubic convolution interpolation (the greatest processing load contributor) to special-purpose processors currently available on the market was shown to reduce the overall computing requirement of the central machine to approximately 6.3 MIPS, a substantial improvement. (This assumes off-loading removes 90% of the original computational burden for each function.)

There still remains the problem of selecting the appropriate general-purpose computer system to support the EOS mission. In general, the analysis of a system for the purpose of providing a good basis for the selection of a basic general-purpose computer system entails an investigation of much greater detail than that possible here. This is true for many factors, not the least of which is the uncertainty associated with "rating" a computer system's performance. The problem is compounded by the fact that a certain portion of the machine resource is necessarily lost in support of management of the system's storage facilities; this factor has not been addressed directly in the present study. It is evident that substantial further investigation will be necessary before a

* The possibility of using two or more parallel general-purpose machines was excluded because of excessive cost (likely to exceed \$15M for the processors only). There are also disadvantages related to added processing overhead, data transfer, etc.



(a) ON-LINE



(b) OFF-LINE

Figure 15. Recommended Configuration - Central Facility

TABLE 10
SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDED CENTRAL FACILITY CONFIGURATION

<u>DEVICE</u>	<u>QUANTITY</u>	<u>COST¹</u>	<u>REMARKS</u>
<u>I/O EQUIPMENT:</u>			
<u>On Line</u>			
120 Mb/s recorders A and B	2	~ \$ 200,000	Ampex estimate
Controllers ²	2	~ 30,000	Worst case estimate
<u>Off Line</u>			
120 Mb/s recorder C	1	~ 200,000	Ampex estimate
LBR	1 ³	~ 150,000	RCA estimate
Cassette WDT recorder	1	~ 15,000	IVC data
Encoder/decoder	1	~ 16,000	Lockheed (MD-103 cost) (off-the-shelf)
Controllers ^{2,4}	3	~ 90,000	Worst case estimate
<u>Spare</u>			
120 Mb/s recorder D	1	~ 100,000	Ampex estimate
LBR	1 ³	~ 150,000	RCA estimate
TOTAL I/O COST		~ 831,000	
<u>PROCESSING EQUIPMENT:</u>			
General-Purpose Processor	1	~ 7,000,000	Actual costs depend on the particular processor and memory components selected, the I/O channels used, and the complement of peripheral storage
Special-Purpose Processor	5	~ 500,000	Estimated cost; installed and fully equipped with appropriate interfaces, etc.
TOTAL PROCESSOR COST		~ 7,500,000	
SYSTEM TOTAL		~ 8,331,000	

¹Costs are given in 1973 dollars and are based on GRC's opinion as to the best estimate provided by various companies. This assessment was made on the basis of the experience in the relevant field of the firms contacted and their construction of similar items. Where the desired equipment is available off-the-shelf, it is so indicated.

²The cost of controllers can only be determined when the exact equipment to be used is selected, and the interface problems defined. The cost figure given is a worst case estimate and covers a highly sophisticated interface system.

³See paragraph 6, Candidate System B (sec. 3.2.3).

⁴The number of controllers required will depend on NASA's selection of digital output products for users.

(14)

final machine selection can be made; such a study would address specific configuration questions pertaining to memory and peripheral organizations as well as the central issue of basic machine processor performance.

It is possible, however, to provide a preliminary indication of the range of computer systems which, within the limitations of information known at the present, appear to be suited to this application. These particular machines are mentioned because of the clearly indicated need for substantial machine computing resource, as well as the corresponding need for substantial amounts of memory and peripheral storage capability.

Typical machines which have the capability to operate in the 6.5 MIPS range or greater include

IBM 360/195, which has a capability on the order of 12-14 MIPS

IBM 370/168, which, with appropriate complements of memory, can operate in the range of 5-10 MIPS

IBM 370/158, which can operate in the 3-8 MIPS range

CDC 7600, which has a capability in the range of 10-15 MIPS

Cost estimates for machines in this capability range can only be made in conjunction with a detailed configuration study. In spite of this, however, our experience with large-scale systems suggests the following guidelines for computer systems of particular MIPS capabilities:

2-3 MIPS: $\$1-2 \times 10^6$

3-5 MIPS: $\$2-3 \times 10^6$

4-6 MIPS: $\$3-4 \times 10^6$

6-15 MIPS: $\$6-8 \times 10^6$

The actual cost for a general-purpose computer system depends on the particular memory components selected, the input/output channels used, and the complement of peripheral storage.

Special-purpose hardware costs are a relatively small fraction of the general-purpose system costs; typical special-purpose equipment is estimated to cost approximately \$100K per processor (fully equipped with appropriate interfaces, etc.). Assuming that at least five special-purpose processor units like the CDC Flexible Processor or ChI, AP-120 Signal Processor (table 9) will be required (i.e., four for cubic convolution, and one for the remainder of the off-loaded functions) total processor hardware costs are estimated between \$7M and \$8M.

B I/O Summary

Figure 15 expands on the conception shown in fig. 13; the appropriate controllers have been added. (Table 10 summarizes the I/O unit quantities and cost estimates.) The same tape transport is used throughout with equalizing electronics for the appropriate transfer rates. For recorders A and B, the transfer rate need only be 8 Mb/s. For C and D the maximum transfer rates available (compatible with the LBR) are required. This is likely to be 120 Mb/s, since this rate is required in the receiving station recorders, and unless higher rates can be obtained with minimal investment, there is no compelling reason to spend any R&D funds to obtain them. A quick-look device, either a CRT or an already existing EBR or LBR, is provided for use on the on-line system to determine any malfunctions. A provision is made for both computer-compatible tape and an encoder scheme, with the latter the recommended approach. Specific devices for use in this configuration including their performance characteristics, costs, and limitations, are discussed in appendix A.

The exact cost will, of course, be a function of the specific devices selected for use, but table 10 represents our best estimate of what the costs should be based on our discussions with potential suppliers of I/O equipment. Note that although the system will be operational in the 1977-78 time frame, cost estimates are made in 1973 dollars.

3.3 REGIONAL FACILITY CONFIGURATION

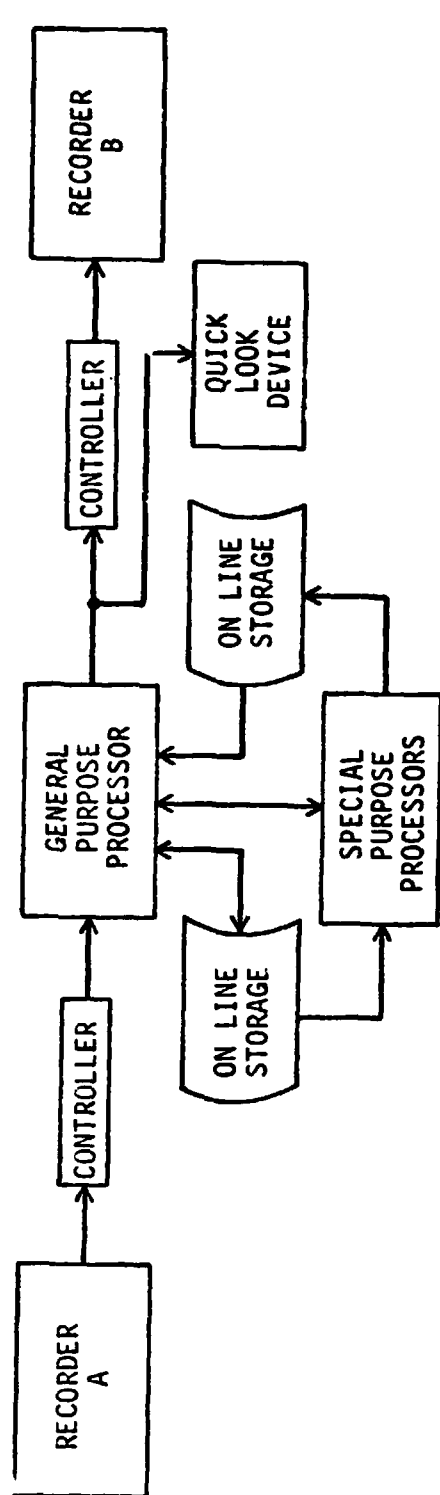
This section discusses our recommended point design for the regional processing facility. Recall that this facility is meant to be a scaled-down version of the central facility intended for image processing and product generation for the needs of a given region only. These facilities might, for example, be located in, and operated by, various state authorities throughout the U.S. to serve users interested in monitoring state or local resources and phenomena only. For purposes of this study, this facility is assumed to meet the same general requirements regarding work week, processing functions performed, etc., as the central facility but differs in its capability of handling only 30% of the central facility scene load and product generation.

Figure 16 and table 11 summarize our recommended configuration. The following two sections review the processor (including MIPS estimate) and I/O units separately.

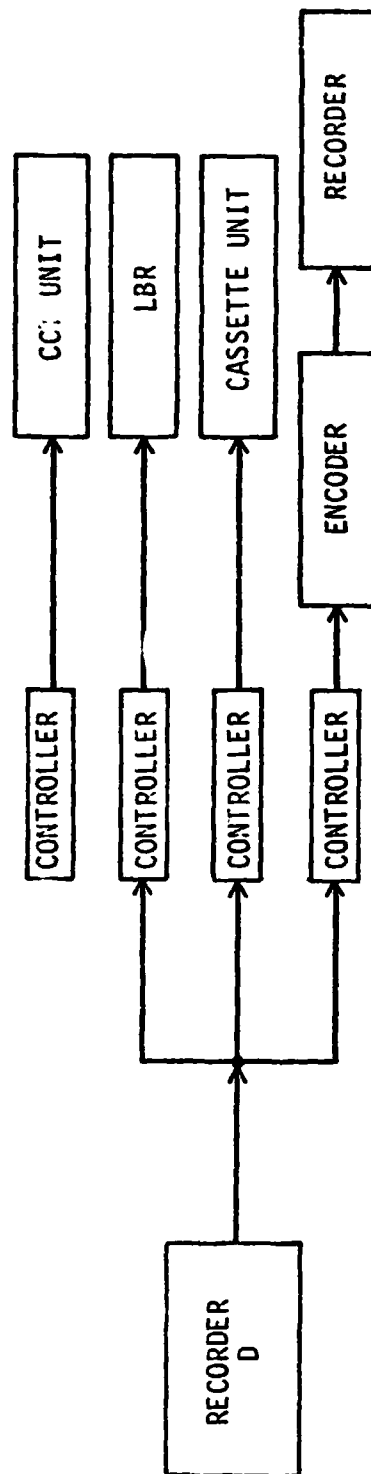
3.3.1 Processor Configuration

The regional facility must perform the same computations as the central site, but need make them only for a portion of the total available EOS imagery. Table 12 shows the total MIPS requirement for a 30% scene load. The total MIPS count is, of course, based upon the same availability (16 hours per day to process 30% of the scene load), and general procedure and assumptions outlined in sec. 3.2.1.A.

Because processor size is set by the largest frame to be processed, the machine chosen for the regional facility must have the same memory capacity, but can safely have as little as ≈ 7 MIPS processing capacity. Because this is a capacity requirement which can be filled only by large-scale computers (table 7), the possibility for off-loading functions should be applied in planning for this facility also. This is based on the following cost-effectiveness considerations.



(a) ON-LINE



(b) OFF-LINE

Figure 16. Regional Facility Configuration

TABLE 11
SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDED REGIONAL FACILITY CONFIGURATION

<u>DEVICE</u>	<u>QUANTITY</u>	<u>COST¹</u>	<u>REMARKS¹</u>
<u>I/O EQUIPMENT:</u>			
On Line			
120 Mb/s recorders A and B	2	~\$ 200,000	Ampex estimate
Controllers ²	2	~30,000	Worst case estimate
Off Line			
120 Mb/s recorder C	1	~200,000	Ampex estimate
LBR	1 ³	~150,000	RCA estimate
Cassette HDDT recorder	1	~15,000	IVC data
Encoder/decoder	1	~16,000	Lockheed (HD-103 cost)(off-the-shelf)
Controllers ^{2,4}	3	~90,000	Worst case estimate
Spare			
LBR	1 ³	~150,000	RCA estimate
TOTAL I/O COST		~751,000	
<u>PROCESSING EQUIPMENT:</u>			
General-Purpose Processor	1	~1,500,000	Actual costs depend on the particular processor and memory components selected, the I/O channels used, and the complement of peripheral storage
Special-Purpose Processors	2	~200,000	Estimated cost; installed and fully equipped with appropriate interfaces, etc.
TOTAL PROCESSOR COST		~1,700,000	
SYSTEM TOTAL		~2,451,000	

¹Costs are given in 1973 dollars and are based on CRC's opinion as to the best estimate provided by various companies. This assessment was made on the basis of the experience in the relevant field of the firms contacted and their construction of similar items. Where the desired equipment is available off-the-shelf, it is so indicated.

²The cost of controllers can only be determined when the exact equipment to be used is selected, and the interface problems defined. The cost figure given is a worst case estimate and covers a highly sophisticated interface system.

³See paragraph 6, Candidate System B (sec. 3.2.3).

⁴The number of controllers required will depend on NASA's selection of digital output products for users.

TABLE 12
EOS REGIONAL FACILITY MIPS ESTIMATE

FUNCTION	Thematic Mapper		HRPI	
	13 input scenes/day 17 output scenes/day		12 input scenes/day 16 output scenes/day	
1 Input	0.074		0.074	
2 Radiometric Correction	0.010		0.010	
3 Ground Control Point Correlation	0.149		0.148	
4 Offset Pointing Correction	---		0.038	
5 Inverse Transformation	0.137		0.003	
6 Output Interpolation				
A Nearest Neighbor (30% of input)	0.045		0.096	
B Cubic Convolution (100% of input)	2.76		2.824	
7 Operating System Overhead	0.378		0.378	
Subtotal	3.55		3.57	
TOTAL	7			

Assuming as before (sec. 3.2.2.A) that special-purpose processors can remove up to 90% of the original computational burden, and assuming that only cubic convolution interpolation is offloaded, the total MIPS estimate (table 12) can be reduced to the order of 2.0 MIPS. Next recall from table 9 that the slowest cubic convolution execution time for any of the special-purpose alternatives is 0.21×10^6 pixel/s. Hence, approximately 430 s are required to interpolate (cubic convolution) a single HRPI frame ($\sim 90 \times 10^6$ pixels); and since approximately 394 s of elapsed time is available (based on a total of 146 equivalent HRPI frame input per 16-hour processing day) at most two parallel special-purpose processors would be required.

Considering the general-purpose and special-purpose processor costs outlined in sec. 3.2.4, a configuration employing a 2.0-MIPS general-purpose machine with two special-purpose processors would run in the \$1 million to \$2 million range. On the other hand, a 7-MIPS machine (general-purpose only configuration) would run in the \$6 million to \$8 million range.

Clearly, based on these cost considerations, the possibility of offloading functions to special-purpose hardware should be considered in planning for the regional facility as well.

3.3.2 I/O Configuration

In selecting an optimum configuration for the regional facility, there are two primary considerations. The first is, of course, the reduced data load (30% of the central processing facility). The second is the requirement of compatibility between the central facility output and the regional facility output.

Examining the first with regard to possibly reducing I/O costs for regional facility, consider the I/O equipment breakdown for the central processing facility:

4	high-speed recorders	\$4000
1	laser beam recorder	10,000
1	cassette unit	15,000
1	encoder	11,000
1	CCT unit and appropriate controllers	--

Not including spares.

Since the regional facility must produce the same type of output as the central facility, the LBR, cassette unit, encoder, and CCT unit must be provided with appropriate controllers, thus eliminating these areas as cost reduction possibilities.

The only remaining area where costs could be reduced would involve a reconfiguration of the system to either require fewer high-speed recorders or less expensive recorders. Compatibility between the regional and the central facility now becomes an important consideration. The input recorder to the processor must be able to reproduce the tapes recorded at the receiving station, therefore, it must be the same tape as is used at the central facility. With regard to the three remaining recorders, it must be assumed that for maximum cost savings the processor will be scaled so that it will have just enough capability (with a safety margin, of course) to cope with the daily data load. Therefore, the second recorder will be tied to the processor during most the day. If there is now a requirement to produce a second digital copy of the data plus two copies of one frame from each scene processed, then recorders with a speed-up capability will also be required. However, because of the reduced data load, only one off-line recorder is required.

The recommended configuration is then as shown in fig. 15. Where a duplicate digital tape is made from recorder B to recorder C at a high data transfer rate (120 Mb/sec as before) and using 30% of data loading

and produce requirements of the central facility, the total time required for processing is 6.99 hours, leaving 9.1 hours of free machine time for future expansion.

It should also be noted that, even if the data requirements are not exactly the same as for the central facility, this configuration provides the maximum flexibility and expansion potential. Also, by using the same equipment as the central facility, archival tapes produced at either facility can be interchanged to compare processing schemes.

The total cost for I/O equipment (table 11) for the region facility is, therefore, the same as for the central facility less the cost of one recorder.

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APPENDIX A -
IMAGE AND DIGITAL RECORDERS

A.1 PREPROCESSING AND RECEIVING STATION RECORDERS

- REQUIREMENTS

- (a) Either one device capable of recording 240 Mb/s or two recorders capable of recording 120 Mb/s each.
- (b) Capability of slowdown to at least 8 Mb/s.

- AVAILABILITY

At present, only two firms are involved in production of recorders approaching the data rates required for EOS. Ampex has built and shipped to TRW a multitrack recorder capable of 80 Mb/s data rate. RCA believes it has the capability to construct a recorder with up to a 240 Mb/s data rate.

- SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE AMPEX RECORDER

Transfer rate	80 Mb/s
Error rate	1 in 10^6 guaranteed, 1 in 10^8 demonstrated
Tape	1-in standard tape
Tracks	25 tracks data 3 track housekeeping
Packing density	20 kb/in/track
Tape speed	150 ips
Slowdown capability	100 to 1
Cost	approximately \$100,000

- TECHNOLOGY LIMITS

- (a) Present recording codes limited to 30 kb/track density
- (b) However, high input rates may be achieved by using one or both of the following methods:
 - Increasing tape speed results in increased input data rate. However, this also results in less recording time--at 150 ips, a 10,500-ft reel lasts only 14 minutes transmitting 2×10^{10} bits at 240 Mb/s requires 13.88 minutes.
 - Increased tape width (from 1 in to 2 in on the Ampex) could accommodate the additional channels required to obtain 240 Mb/s input rate if only one recorder is desired. This, however, results in deskewing problems due to tape deformation.

A.2 DIGITAL PRODUCTS

The digital products required are HDDTs for archival storage, HDDT user products and CCT user products. The requirements and specifications of recorders now available to produce the archival HDDTs are summarized in Table A-1. The Ampex unit is recommended since its speed-up capability allows the most flexibility in the off-line production system.

GRC has also investigated various possibilities related to recorders for purchase by the EOS users. Minimal cost and a standardized high-density digital output product were considered as criteria. The recommendation here is an IVC cartridge high-density recorder fully compatible with and having the same specifications as the IVC-MMR due to be available in 1974 (table A-1). With a cartridge capacity of approximately 2.5×10^{10} bits, it would represent an ideal recorder for the users to purchase and for NASA to use in making digital products. However, the 6 Mb/s throughput rate might be too high for use in the data processing facilities of

some smaller users, and none of the IVC machines has the capability of speed reduction. As an alternative we suggest the Lockheed HD-103 serial-to-parallel converter, specifications for which are listed in table A-2. This can be used with any high-quality instrument recorder with a 2-MHz bandwidth. If a single 7-channel HD-103 is used to record 12 channels (6 at a time) on a standard 14-track instrumental recorder, this will yield approximately 250 kb in packing density. Use of the HD-103 would allow the reduction of output rate in proportion to the speed reduction capabilities of the recorder (i.e., if the recorder allows a 10^{-1} speed reduction, throughput rate can be reduced from 6.3 to 0.63 Mb/s). Since most small users probably possess a high-quality recorder, this alternative represents a relatively modest investment. We feel that the use of the HD-103 is preferable to the use of computer-compatible tape.

For the production of CCTs a variety of recorders are available at recording densities of 556,800 and 1600 BPI at a relatively low price. Due to the relatively low transfer rates required, however, producing CCTs will be extremely time consuming. As an alternative we would recommend the Lockheed HD-103 again as a low-cost high-speed alternative.

TABLE A-1
OUTPUT DEVICES - HIGH DENSITY DIGITAL TAPES

- Requirements
 - Ability to handle computer output rate
 - Two digital tapes of all data are required for archival purposes
- Availability
 - If the computer is limited to thruput data rates in the order of 8 megabits/sec, then either the IVC-MMR or RCA TR-70 recorders could be used
 - If pipeline processors or special purpose equipment permit significantly higher data rates, then an Ampex or RCA recorder such as used on the input side should be considered
 - In our recommended configuration a recorder with a substantial speed change capability is required, and given the present state of technology, only linear multitrack recorders can fill these requirments
 - Data is provided on the IVC and RCA recorders in the event NASA desides on another configuration for the processing facility
 - Data on the Ampex recorder is provided in the previous section

Specifications: IVC-MMR

- Signal Electronics Data (Rotating Head)

Input/Output	8.1×10^6 bits/sec
Packing Density	1×10^6 bits/inch ²
Throughput	7×10^6 bits/sec
Error Rate	< 1 in 10^6 (uncorrected)
Input Data Format	Serial NRZ plus clock
Output Data Format	Serial NRZ plus clock
Addressable Record	119 bits
Capacity on 7000' Reel	8.5×10^{10} bits
Cost	\$50,000

TABLE A-1 (continued)
OUTPUT DEVICES - HIGH DENSITY DIGITAL TAPES

- Specifications: RCA TR-70

Packing Density	400 kb/in ² or 800 kb/in ²
Error Rate	1 in 10 ⁷ with 400 kb packing density 1 in 10 ⁶ with 800 kb packing density
Input Rate	15 Mb/s
Output Rate	15, 7.5, 3.75 Mb/s
Tape Size	2 in standard videotape
Cost	\$150,000
- IVC Cassette unit
 - The IVC cassette has the same specifications as the MMR with the exceptions of
 - (1) no search speed capability
 - (2) smaller reel size (2500 ft)
 - (3) cost of approximately \$15,000
 - IVC anticipates production of the cassette unit in early 1974.

TABLE A-2
COMPUTER-COMPATIBLE OUTPUT (HD-103)

Number of channels	7
Input rate	Variable (approximately 100 to) to maximum of 21 Mb/s (depending on the quality of recorder in use)
Output rate	Variable (as above)
Packing density	Maximum 231 kb/in. (7 tracks-dependent on quality of recorder)
Error rate	1 in 10 ⁶
Recorder requirements	For maximum performance 2-MHz bandwidth recorder is required

- Cost: \$16,000

A.3 FILM RECORDERS

As with the tape recorders, no device is commercially available that is perfectly suitable for EOS use. The closest is the RCA PAR-5 LBR which satisfies all of the technical requirements for the EOS system. Basically, these requirements are as follows:

- a 9.5-in film format
- resolution adequate to reproduce 6300 elements over approximately 7.5 in
- at least 128 intensity levels
- hands-off operation

Below are some specifications for the RCA PAR-5 and other LBRs that might be considered:

	PAR 5	Laser Beam Image Reproducer (LBIR)	Wideband Signal Recorder	LR 70 Series
Bandwidth	100 MHz	25 MHz	200 MHz	75 MHz
Resolution	120 lp/mm @0.5 MTF	80 lp/mm	120 lp/mm @0.5 MTF	100 lp/mm @0.5 MTF
Signal-to- Noise Ratio (pp/rms)	20 dB	20 dB	30 dB	30 dB
Amplitude Linearity	1%	1%	5%	5%
Scan Linearity	0.1%	0.1%	6% (off axis scanner	0.1%
Scan Jitter	<2 μ m (rms) <1 ns (rms)	9 μ m; 30 ns (rms)	<0.4 μ m; 0.3 ns(rms)	0.5 μ m; 1 ns (rms)
Transport Periodic Errors	2 μ m (rms)	1 μ m (rms)	2 μ m (pp)	

CBS has met each of the above requirements in various LBR systems, but no one system integrates all of these requirements.

A system now being prepared for delivery uses a 17 in. × 22 in. flat field format. While the resolution is adequate for the TM, it does not satisfy HRPI requirements. Further, the data rate is limited to approximately 2 MHz.

The peculiarity of this system is that it uses a mirror mounted on a galvanometer rather than a multifaceted spinning mirror. The advantage of the galvanometer approach is that it may cost less than a tenth that of the spinning mirror assembly. The disadvantages are that it limits resolution and data rate.

The CBS-built JIF DATS system has more than adequate resolution for both the TM and the HRPI and data rates, about 20 Mb/s. The format is only 5 in, however.

With regard to hands-off operation; CBS was skeptical of the use of continuously moving film in an LBR because of the skewing and deformation problems. An approach CBS considered using is advancing the entire table. This is the approach being used in the first system described here.

In table A-3, specifications are given for the CBS JIF DATS system.

Costs - RCA has indicated that a version of the PAR-s with non military specifications could be constructed for approximately \$150,000.

CBS was very vague about costs, i.e., $100K < \text{cost} < 1 \text{ million}$, for model 1. Beyond that, CBS believed costs might be reduced to \$75 thousand to \$100 thousand per model if the galvanometer approach can be used--\$40 thousand to \$50 thousand greater than that if a spinning mirror is required.

TABLE A-3
CBS JIF DATS LBR SPECIFICATIONS

<u>Components</u>	In-Flight Photo Processor-Scanner (IPPS) Ground Recorder-Processor-Viewer (PRPV)
<u>Video Bandwidth</u>	High Resolution - 18.9 MHz Med. Resolution - 12.6 MHz Low Resolution - 6.3 MHz
<u>Resolution</u>	High Resolution - 60 lp/mm Med. Resolution - 35 lp/mm Low Resolution - 20 lp/mm
<u>Film Advance Rate</u>	High Resolution - 0.557 ips Med. Resolution - 0.956 ips Low Resolution - 1.67 ips
<u>Modulation Transfer Function (MTF)</u>	Exceed 0.1 in High Resolution Mode Exceed 0.4 in other modes
<u>Film Capacity</u>	IPPS: 350 ft - thin base PRPV: 1000 ft - thin base
<u>Film Width</u>	5 in - unperforated
<u>Output Imagery</u>	
<u>Distortion (Geometric Linearity)</u>	±0.1%

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